VOYAGE IN SEARCH OF LA PEROUSE.

Concluded from Page 249.

With an engraved View of the Iſland of Bourou, *taken from the Road.*

CONTENTS.

Departure from Tongataboo—Natives of New Caledonia proved to be Cannibals—No Intelligence obtained of La Pérouſe—Land on the Iſland of St. Croix—Caſt Anchor at Waygiou—Anchor near the Village of Bouton—Treatment at Sourabaya—Mutiny of Dauribeau—Return to Paris.

WE now approach the concluſion of this voyage, and have to regret that, as to its principal object, it completely failed.

On the 10th of April 1793, the ſhips departed from Tongataboo, and on the 20th ſome of the natives of New Caledonia came on board, not to ſell, but to buy proviſions, of which they made ſigns that they were in great want. After anchoring at New Caledonia, and having an interview with the natives, they made the unpleaſant diſcovery that they were cannibals, and extremely ferocious and impudent. Captain Cook and Forſter had given a very different account. Our voyagers, however, had repeated proofs of their eating human fleſh, though probably, which they wiſhed to inſinuate, only that of their enemies killed or taken in battle. The other particulars of their interviews with the New Caledonians, although detailed at great length, are extremely unintereſting. They could gain no intelligence of the fate of La Pérouſe, but think it not improbable that this dangerous and almoſt unacceſſible coaſt proved fatal to that navigator, who was to have explored the weſtern part of it.

On the 10th of May they ſet ſail, and on the morning of the 20th, perceived the iſland of St. Croix, on which they afterward landed, and had ſome intercourſe with the natives, who were, however, rather hoſtile, and, as uſual, given to theft. One of the ſavages ſlightly pierced with an arrow the forehead of one of the ſeamen, who died ſoon after of the wound, although the arrow did not appear to be poiſoned. After this, the ſhips obtained a view of the ſouthern part of the Archipelago of Solomon, reconnoitred the northern coaſt of Luiſiade, and ſailed through Dampier's ſtraits in order to reconnoitre the north coaſt of New Britain.—On the 11th of Auguſt, they doubled the Cape of Good Hope of New Guinea, and on the 16th caſt anchor at Waygiou, of which we have the following account.

'During our ſtay at Waygiou we were frequently viſited by the natives, who brought us turtles, ſeveral of which weighed from 200 to 240 pounds. They had moſtly been taken on the iſlands of Aiou. The ſoup which we made of them afforded great relief to our ſcorbutic patients. When the natives perceived that we were in need of them, they made us pay for them at ten times their value. Theſe animals continue to crawl about ſeveral hours after their heads had been cut off. The natives ſold us likewiſe, turtle eggs roaſted and dried; broiled turtle fleſh, pullets, hogs, of which they told us there was great abundance in their woods; oranges, cocoa-nuts, papayas, gourds of different kinds, rice, purſlain *(portulaca quadrifida)* ſugar canes, pimento, unripe ears of Turkey corn roaſted, and the freſh ſprouts of the papaya tree. They told us that the ſprouts and unripe fruit of this tree were very good eating when boiled. They brought us alſo ſago, made into a ſort of flat cakes, three inches broad and ſix long, which they ate without any farther

preparation. Some of them brought us ſago made into a ſouriſh taſted paſte, after having undergone fermentation.

'Moſt of theſe iſlanders were naked all but their natural parts, which they cover with a coarſe ſtuff, apparently made of the bark of the fig-tree. The heat of the climate renders all other clothing unneceſſary. Only their chiefs wear very wide trowſers and jackets, made of ſtuffs which they buy from the Chineſe, who, as they told us, came from time to time to anchor where we were. Some of them wore alſo bracelets of ſilver, which they had likewiſe bought of the Chineſe. Almoſt all the chiefs of theſe ſavages had been at the Molucca iſlands, and ſpoke the Malay language. Some wore hats made of the leaves of vacoua, of a conical form, and very like to thoſe of the Chineſe. Others had their heads bound round with a ſort of turban. They have all curled hair, which grows very thick, and to a conſiderable length. The colour of their ſkins is not very black. Some ſuffer the beard on the upper lip to grow, and have their ears and the diviſion of the noſe bored. Several of them ſhewed us their dexterity in ſhooting with the bow at a mark placed at the diſtance of more than forty paces; and their arrows always came very near their aim. Others were armed with very long lances, pointed with iron or bone. Theſe iſlanders undoubtedly know how to forge the iron, as they ſet great value upon ſome bars of this metal, which we gave them. Tin was likewiſe in great requeſt with them. But of all our commodities they gave a decided preference to cloth, particularly ſuch as was of a red colour.

'The iſland Waygiou, called by the inhabitants Quarido, is covered with large trees, and throughout mountainous, even at a very ſmall diſtance from the coaſt. The huts were built of bamboo, raiſed upon ſtakes, about three yards above the ground, and covered with reeds.

'It is remarkable, that as ſoon as we had landed, thoſe of our crew who were the leaſt affected with the ſcurvy, or even ſhewed no ſymptoms at all of that diſorder, became affected with a conſiderable degree of ſwelling all over the body: but this ſymptom, which had very much alarmed ſome of us, diſappeared entirely after walking three or four hours.

'The natives told us, that the road-ſtead where our veſſels rode at anchor was infeſted by alligators; but this did not deter ſeveral of our ſailors from bathing in it. We afterward found ſome of the prints of their feet in the woods. It is particularly during the night-time that theſe animals are moſt to be feared.

'While we lay at anchor we were viſited by ſeveral of the chiefs. The chief of Ravak ſupped and ſlept on board the Eſperance the night before our departure; but as ſoon as he ſaw preparations for weighing anchor, he threw himſelf into the ſea, from the apprehenſion that we were going to carry him away with us. We ſhould have been ſurpriſed at his harbouring ſuch a ſuſpicion, if we had not been informed, that months before the Dutch had carried off his brother, during an entertainment which they had made for him on board of their veſſel. This chief wore trowſers, with a very wide Indian cloak, and a waiſtcoat of ſatin. His earrings were of gold.

'The inhabitants of this iſland had declared war againſt the Dutch, and the greater part of them, with the moſt powerful of the chiefs, to whom they give the title of Sultan, at their head, were gone to unite with the inhabitants of Ceram, in order to attack the governor of Amboyna, who was expected there on his viſit to the Molucca iſlands. The inhabitants of the huts built on the coaſt near our anchoring ſtation, had provided for the ſafety of their women and children, by conducting them, before their departure from the iſland, into the villages in the heart of the country.

The road-ſtead where our veſſels lay is called by the natives Boni-Sainé. It is diſtant about 5,130 toiſes to the eaſtward of Ravak, and formed by the coaſt of Waygiou and a ſmall iſland called by the natives Boni, which was eaſtward of our ſtation. We were here almoſt under the equator, our latitude being found by obſervation 33″ s. Our longitude was 128° 53′ E.

'On the 4th of September, we caſt anchor in the road-ſtead of Bourou, at the diſtance of 1,000 toiſes from the Dutch ſettlement, in a depth of twenty fathoms, over a bottom of ſand and mud. The commander of this ſtation immediately ſent a corporal to us, to offer us a ſupply of whatever freſh proviſions we might have occaſion for. A few minutes after we obſerved ſome muſkets fired among a herd of buffaloes that were walking a-long the ſhore, and were informed that the reſident had ordered two of the fatteſt to be killed for the uſe of our veſſels. Well acquainted with the wants of navigators, he had ſent us a great quantity of fruit, ſeveral bottles of an agreeable liquor extracted from the palm-tree, and ſome of the young leaves of a ſpecies of fern of the *genus aſplenium*, which grows in moiſt places in the ſhade: eaten as ſallad they are very tender and well-taſted.

'The reſident, Henry Commans, was a man of great ſimplicity of manners, and very much beloved by the inhabitants. It was he whoſe happineſs the Dutch of Amboyna deſcribed, by telling us that he might ſleep as much as he pleaſed. We met with ſeveral perſons in his houſe who had ſeen admiral Bougainville during his ſtay at Bourou, and who mentioned the name of that celebrated navigator with enthuſiaſtic admiration.

'This and the following day were employed by me in ſurveying the different diſtricts of this iſland, which preſents every where a very varied and pictureſque appearance. The ſago tree grows here in great abundance: it forms the principal ſource of ſubſiſtence to the inhabitants, and affords even an article of exportation. Large plantations of it were ſeen near the Dutch eſtabliſhment, in marſhes which render this place very unhealthy, particularly in the beginning of the ſpring. The cayou pouti of the Malays *(melaleuca latifolia)* grows in great abundance upon the hills. The reſident ſhowed us a large alembic, which he uſes for diſtilling the leaves of this tree, from which he procures every year a great quantity of the oil of cajeput.

'The iſland of Bourou produces ſeveral kinds of wood proper for inlaid work, which are in great requeſt among the Chineſe; and others uſeful in dyeing. Two Chineſe veſſels were run aground in the mud to the NE of the Dutch fort. The village near which the fort is built is called Cayeli, in the Malay language. Thoſe of the natives who follow the Mahometan religion have a moſque, whoſe roofs diminiſhing in regular gradation as they riſe one above the other, preſent a very agreeable appearance.

'The coaſt to the eaſt of the village is watered only by very ſmall ſtreams, but about 2,500 toiſes to the NW, we went up a very conſiderable river, called by the inhabitants Aer-Beſſar, which diſcharges itſelf into the road-ſtead. This river is very deep, and for the length of about 2000 toiſes, as far as we went up it, more than ſeventy feet broad. The iſland of Bourou undoubtedly owes its poſſeſſing ſo conſiderable a ſtream to the great elevation of its mountains. On the borders of the river I frequently found the beautiful ſhrub known by the name of *portlandia grandiflora*.

'The pebbles rolled from the mountains, which I found on the banks of ſeveral rivulets, were fragments of rocks of quartz mixed with mica, and frequently of a ſort of free ſtone, which likewiſe conſiſted of quartzoſe particles.

'Birds, eſpecially parrots, are ſo numerous in this iſland, that it proba-

bly derives from this circumſtance its name, which ſignifies in the Malayan language, a bird.

'The woods afford ſuch abundance of deer, goats and wild boars, that the natives can furniſh the reſident with as many as he has occaſion for, at the rate of two muſket ſhots fired at each. The ſpecies of boar called babirouſſa *(ſus babiruſſa)* is alſo found here.

'The natives ſeemed to be much afraid of ſeveral kinds of ſnakes, which they told us were very numerous in their iſland; but during the whole of our ſtay in this place, which I ſpent almoſt entirely in rambling through the woods, I never met with one of theſe reptiles.

'Although the rainy ſeaſon had not yet ſet in, violent ſtorms blew almoſt every night from the high mountains.

'Upon ſounding the bay, we diſcovered at its entrance, a little on this ſide of the eaſt point, called Point Rouba, a ſhelf of rocks, at a depth of not more than a fathom throughout an extent of about 2,000 toiſes; but the reſt of this ſpecious outlet very deep, and that even at a ſmall diſtance from the weſtern point, or Point Leſſatello, called by the natives *Tanguiou Corbau* (Buffalo Point).

'On the 16th, we ſailed from Bourou, ſteering for the ſtrait of Bouton, which we entered on the afternoon of the 22d.'

On the 7th of October, they anchored near the village of Bouton, after having paſſed the ſtrait of that name.

'We had ſpent a conſiderable ſpace of time in paſſing through this ſtrait, as we were obliged to lie at anchor during the whole night time, and in the day to wait till the tide was favourable to our intended courſe, before we could ſet ſail.

'During our paſſage the natives brought us various ſorts of fruits common in the Moluccas. Some of their boats had a cargo of wild bread-fruit, the kernels of which, thoſe who eat of them, found very indigeſtible, even when roaſted. They brought us likewiſe a great number of pullets, goats, dried and ſometimes freſh fiſh. Moſt of theſe natives would not exchange any of their commodities with us, before they had aſked permiſſion of the commander of our veſſel, to whom they generally made a preſent. They informed us that a year ago they had ſeen four European veſſels ſailing through this ſtrait, namely, two from Ternate, the others from Banda and Amboyna. Theſe people trade with the Dutch. They preferred money to any other commodity we offered them. Moſt of them, however, were very deſirous to procure powder and ball from us; but when they found that we would not give them any, one of them offered us two ſlaves in exchange for a ſmall quantity of ammunition, and appeared extremely ſurpriſed that we did not accept of his propoſal.

'Theſe iſlanders brought us a great number of parrots, of the ſpecies *pſillacus alexandri* and *pſillacus criſtatus*.

'We were much ſurpriſed to ſee them bring ſome cotton ſtuffs, and thread made of the *agave vivipara*, which, they told us, were of their own manufacture.

'I made uſe of the opportunities afforded me by our detention in the ſtrait to go on ſhore.

'The moiſt ground exhibited almoſt every where marks of the feet of deer, wild boars, and buffaloes. We frequently found numerous herds of the laſt mentioned animals lying upon the wet ground; but they always betook themſelves to flight as ſoon as they ſaw us, and it was impoſſible to purſue them through the mire.

'The iſlanders, aware of the danger of living near the moraſſes, which render the northern coaſt of Pangeſani very unhealthy, have built no villages in that part of the country. It was in the mid of theſe moraſſes that our crew became firſt infected with a dyſentery of a very contagious nature, which produced the greater ravages among us, as we were already much

debilitated by the long uſe of bad proviſions, which had become ſtill more unwholeſome during the courſe of our voyage. I was alſo infected with this diſorder, which proved fatal to great numbers of our crew.

'8th, This morning at ſun-riſe, four chiefs, who bore the title of Oran-kai, came on board to notify to us, that we were not permitted to land, before the Sultana, who reſided at Bouton, and was an ally of the Dutch company, had been previouſly informed of our deſign. We told them that we were very deſirous of viewing this part of the iſland, and one of them went immediately to ſignify our wiſh to that petty ſovereign.

'We were ſoon viſited by two Dutch ſoldiers, who offered to procure us an interview with the ſultan, aſſuring us that without his permiſſion the natives durſt not ſell us any proviſions. They then conducted us to their own dwelling, where we were informed that the ſultan would not be viſible till very late in the afternoon. Upon this intelligence a conſiderable number of us took an excurſion into the interior of the iſland, directing our route to the eaſtward. The natives did not appear ſurpriſed at ſeeing us, and ſhewed no inclination to follow us.

'After having walked for more than two hours along the banks of a ſmall river, covered with a great number of boats, ſome of which had come from the ſtrait laden with fiſh, we forded the ſtream with a view of proceeding to the northward. We went up very ſteep aſcents, where I collected a great number of plants; among others, the *barleria prionitis*, and ſeveral new ſpecies of the *croton*.

'Moſt of the habitations in this part of the country were built upon the ſummits of delightful hills, with which this ſide of the iſland abounds. We met with a very friendly reception from the inhabitants, who preſented to us fruits of different kinds. One of them, who went to gather ſome cocoa-nuts for us, climbed very quickly to the top of the tree, by means of an expedient which to me appeared ſingular. He tied his legs together near the ancle with a ſtripe of cloth, by which he was enabled to graſp the trunk of the tree with his feet ſo ſtrongly as to ſupport the whole weight of his body; and, as the ſtem was not very thick, by thus claſping it alternately with his feet and his arms, he very ſoon reached the top.

'We remarked ſome forts built on the moſt inacceſſible heights among theſe hills, which ſerve the inhabitants for a place of refuge when their habitations are invaded by an enemy. Theſe fortifications conſiſt of ſtone walls of conſiderable thickneſs, and about ten or twelve feet high, incloſing a plot of ground from ſixty to eighty feet ſquare.

'The natives who ſold us ſtuffs a few days before had not deceived us when they told us that they had been manufactured in the iſland of Bouton. We ſaw to-day, in ſeveral of the houſes, looms for manufacturing ſimilar ſtuffs; the workmen performing their operations in a manner very like our linen weavers. They uſe cotton threads of various colours; but red and blue appear to be the moſt in requeſt among the natives.

'About four o'clock in the afternoon we went to the village of Bouton to ſee the ſultan. We had not been informed that it was neceſſary to bring ſome preſents with us, in order to be admitted to an audience. As we had nothing to offer him, he was not to be ſpoken with; but his ſon and nephew received us at the fort where he reſides. They frequently repeated to us, with great emphaſis, that the whole iſland was under his dominion; that he was an ally of the Dutch company, and that their enemies were his enemies. They then told us that the natives of Ceram having lately invaded their coaſts, four of them were taken and delivered up to the king, who immediately ordered them to be beheaded. They then deſired us to ſtep a few paces further, and ſhewed

us, with an air of great ſatisfaction, the heads of theſe unfortunate iſlanders, expoſed upon long poles planted on the walls of the fort.

'The village of Bouton is built upon an eminence with a very ſteep declivity to the northweſt, and ſurrounded with thick walls which ſecure the inhabitants from the incurſions of their enemies. The houſes are built of bamboo, and their roofs covered with palm-trees, like thoſe of the other inhabitants of the Moluccas.

'The ſultan reſides in a fort built of ſtone. It appeared to us that this chief ſhews great diſtruſt of the agents of the Dutch company, though they are his allies; for the three Dutch ſoldiers, who were the only inhabitants of the company's houſe, were not permitted to live in the village where he reſides. They were obliged to remain in an inconvenient, iſolated dwelling, more than 1000 toiſes diſtant from his reſidence. They were ſoon to leave the iſland, and go to Macaſſar; but were ſtill detained by the apprehenſion of meeting with the veſſels of the natives of Ceram, which had been cruiſing for ſome time in theſe ſeas.

'It was already night when we returned to the ſhore in order to go on board. As it was then low water, we were obliged to wade in the ſea up to our waiſts, though the greater part of us had laboured under the dyſentery for ſeveral days, which was very much aggravated in conſequence.

'During the day the natives had brought, for the uſe of our veſſels, rice, maize, ſugar canes, pullets, eggs, ducks and goats. In exchange for theſe proviſions they had been offered hardware commodities, but they preferred the money current in the Moluccas, eſpecially the ſmall ſilvered coin which they call *koupan pera*, and which is brought over by the Dutch from Europe.'

Their treatment at Sourabaya, one of the principal eſtabliſhments of the Dutch in the iſland of Java, is thus related. The pretext appears to have been that the Dutch were then at war with France.

'31ſt, We ſoon obtained permiſſion to reſide in the town of Sourabaya, where I procured a lodging in the houſe of meſſrs. Bawer and Stagh, who received me with the greateſt cordiality.

'November 10th, The council revoked the permiſſion they had granted us, and all our company were immediately obliged to return on board, with the exception of our invalids, to which number I belonged, the dyſentery having left me in a ſtate of extreme debility. Being now removed from the reſt of my fellow-ſufferers in this contagious malady, I was very much relieved by the uſe of purgatives, ſago, and ſkimmed milk; and in a ſhort time completely recovered.

'It was high time that this captivity ſhould have an end; for the number of ſick perſons on board increaſed with alarming rapidity. Almoſt one half of the crew were attacked with dyſentery and contagious fevers, which did not abate of their violence till they had carried off ſeveral of our men. At length the council again granted the permiſſion which they had revoked a few days before, and we had the ſatisfaction of meeting again together in the town.

'The heat was exceſſive during the firſt days of our ſtay at Sourabaya. I was aſtoniſhed to ſee Reaumur's thermometer riſe to 27°; but theſe burning heats were but of ſhort duration; for the change of the monſoon, which took place about the beginning of November, cauſed for a conſiderable time, eſpecially in the afternoon, abundant falls of rain, which cooled the atmoſphere to ſuch a degree, that the thermometer did not ſtand higher than 22° or 23°, in the hotteſt part of the day.

'As ſoon as my health was a little reeſtabliſhed, I made frequent excurſions in the environs of the town, and as far into the country as my ſtrength permitted me. I had the pleaſure of ſeeing my collections of

natural hiſtory encreaſe with a great number of ſpecimens which I had never before met with.

'On the 12th of December, thoſe of us who were engaged in the purſuit of natural hiſtory, obtained permiſſion from the governor of Sourabaya to viſit the mountains of Prau, ſituate at the diſtance of about 30,000 toiſes weſt-ſouthweſt of the town.

'On the following day, we ſet out for the village of Poron, ſituate near the foot of the mountains. The Javaneſe who carried our baggage, ſuſpended it to long poles of bamboo, each borne between the ſhoulders of two men.

'Having proceeded about 20,000 toiſes, we arrived at Sonde Kari, where we dined after the Javaneſe faſhion with the chief of the village, who had ordered a ſumptuous repaſt to be prepared for us. It conſiſted of ſeveral diſhes of broiled fiſh, and the fleſh of buffaloes and horſes that had been preſerved, as we were told, for ſix months, by being cut into thin ſlices, and dried in the ſun. All the diſhes were ſeaſoned very highly with pepper, pimento and ginger. Rice ſerved us in the place of bread, and the entertainment concluded with a plentiful deſert of excellent fruit.

'We ſoon ſet forward on our journey, and were overtaken by a heavy rain, which put us to great inconvenience. A ſerjeant of the Dutch troop gave us a proof of his authority over the Javaneſe, who returned to the village we had left, by taking out of their hands the umbrellas which they had brought with them; none of them daring to reſiſt. We did not know what he intended to do with them, till he came up and offered them to us, ſaying, that he thought it very preſumptuous in theſe men to ſhelter themſelves from the rain, while they ſaw us expoſed to it; but to his great ſurpriſe, none of us would make uſe of the umbrellas, but deſired him to return them to the owners.

'At length we arrived at the village of Poron, where we were received by the chief, who bears the title of Deman. His principal office is to apportion to the natives their daily taſks of labour.

'The country through which we had paſſed is a vaſt plain, in which rice is principally cultivated. The plantations were already covered with ſix or eight inches of water, retained by the earthern mounds with which they were ſurrounded.

Before we arrived at Sonda Kari, we had obſerved large plantations of indigo. This article is principally cultivated in Java by the Chineſe, who have much more extenſive acquaintance with the arts than the natives.

'We ſaw likewiſe ſeveral fields in which the *ricinus communis* was cultivated, from the ſeeds of which the Javaneſe extracted a kind of lamp-oil.

'This plain contains alſo a few plantations of maize, ſugar canes, and the *holcus ſorghum*.

'We ſpent the night in a very neat houſe, built of bamboo, which ſtood cloſe by that of the Deman.

'14th, On the following day we baited at the weſt extremity of the ſame village upon lands under the juriſdiction of the Tomogon of Banguil, who, though he reſided at the diſtance of more than 7,500 toiſes from thence, came early in the morning to give orders to the inhabitants to provide for our ſafety, and furniſh us with whatever eatables we might want.

'The Tomogon was a man of much good ſenſe, ſpoke the Dutch language very well, and had a competent knowledge of the affairs of Europe. He was a Chineſe by birth, but had embraced the Mahometan religion in order to obtain the title of Tomogon.

'We were extremely fatigued with the journey we had made the preceding day upon the ſmall horſes common in this iſland. Their very hard trot galled us the more, as the ſaddles we were obliged to make uſe of were not ſtuffed, but conſiſted of a very hard kind of wood, with a thick piece of

ſkin glued on for their only covering. Beſides, the Javaneſe ſtirrups were too ſhort for us, and could not be lowered, which rendered our poſture extremely uneaſy. We therefore went very little from our habitation during this day, but on the following (15th) we paſſed over a plain about 2,500 toiſes in length, and for the greater part already covered with water, before we arrived at the mountains of Prau. The Tomogon of Banguil came to this place on horſeback, accompanied by upward of a hundred attendants, very well mounted. We found him in the foreſt, where he waited for us; but, having probably very little idea of the ſimple mode in which naturaliſts chooſe to travel, he had made his men bring chairs with them for us to ſit down upon at the top of one of the mountains, from whence we had a view through the trees of a great extent of country, which he told us was all in his dependency; and, to impreſs it the more ſtrongly upon our minds, he immediately ordered the tops of ſeveral tek-trees to be ſtruck off; but we ſaw with regret more than a hundred feet of the trunks of theſe beautiful trees deſtroyed and ſacrificed to ſuch a momentary gratification.

'The natives were employed in clearing a fine piece of ground at the foot of the eaſtern mountains. The ſmaller trees they cut down with axes; the larger they only ſtripped of their bark near the root, in order to make them decay.

'In the afternoon a diſtant ſound of thunder uſhered in a violent fall of rain, as is uſual at this ſeaſon, which compelled us to haſten back to our habitation. The Tomogon, before he returned to Banguil, repeated the orders he had already given to the natives, to provide for our ſafety and our wants.

'On the following days we viſited the mountains of Panangounan, penetrating into the territory of the emperor of Solo through vaſt foreſts of tek-trees, under the ſhade of which the *pancratium amboinenſe* grew in abundance. Our guides often expreſſed their fear of meeting with tigers, which, they told us, were very common in the thickets on the banks of the rivers, where they lie in wait for the animals that come to drink. We, however, met with none of theſe beaſts of prey.

'At a ſmall diſtance weſtward of the village of Porou, we ſaw two coloſſal ſtatues, called by the Javaneſe *rectio*, and in high veneration among them. They were both hewn out of blocks of ſtone eleven feet high; their drapery was very wide, and the phyſiognomy of the two heads bore a Mooriſh character. To me it appeared probable that theſe ſtatues had been erected in honour of ſome of the Mooriſh conquerors of the Moluccas; but the natives could give us no information upon this head.

'The Dutch ſerjeant who accompanied us was a paſſionate admirer of the muſic of the Javaneſe. Soon after our arrival at Porou, he ſent for a female ſinger, whoſe ſhrill voice was accompanied by two muſicians, who played every evening upon inſtruments, one of which reſembled a dulcimer, and the other a mandolin. While we were employed in preparing and deſcribing our collections, we were obliged to hear, for ſeveral hours together, this diſcordant muſic, which, however, had always charms ſufficient to attract a great concourſe of the natives round the performers.

'All the airs were ſung in the Javaneſe language. They generally turned upon the ſubject of love, as our ſerjeant, who underſtood the Javaneſe language perfectly well, interpreted them to us. He told us that theſe airs were all *impromptu* as thoſe ſung by the ſinging-women of Java generally are. Ours accompanied her voice with a variety of geſtures appropriate to the ſubject, and eſpecially with certain movements of her fingers of very difficult execution, which were much applauded by the natives. If report does not do them injuſtice,

theſe ſinging-women are not diſtinguiſhed by any extraordinary rigidity of virtue.

'On the 20th, we returned to Sourabaya.'

What follows, and ſhall conclude this article, is yet more ſingular, and completed the ill ſucceſs of the voyage.

'Citizen Riche and I had formed a plan of ſpending ſome time among the mountains of Paſſervan, to which we had approached very near during our laſt excurſion. They are very high, and we had often heard their fertility much ſpoken of. Grain is cultivated there with great ſucceſs. Many European fruit-trees likewiſe ſucceed very well upon thoſe heights, on account of the mild temperature of their atmoſphere. It was neceſſary for us to procure a new order from the governor before we could undertake this expedition; but Dauribeau, (lieutenant of the Recherche) who had offered to requeſt it for us, brought us information that the governor had ſhortly received new inſtructions from the council at Batavia, according to which he could not permit us to go to any great diſtance from the town; a walk of three or four hours, being all that was allowed us. I went ſeveral times to ſee a ſpring ſituate at the diſtance of about 7,500 toiſes to the weſtward. A great quantity of petroleum riſes to the ſurface of its water, and is carefully collected by the inhabitants, who mix it with pitch. Abundance of pumice-ſtone is found in the ſurrounding country.

'Citizen Riche and I lodged in the ſame houſe. We generally went out together to purſue our reſearches, and returned in the evening to Sourabaya with the new ſpecimens we had collected. It was always with regret that we found our labours ſuſpended by the approach of night. But on the 19th of February 1794, about four o'clock in the morning, Chateauvieaux, the commandant of the place, came with a troop of thirty ſoldiers under arms, to inform us, in the name of Dauribeau and the principal officers of our expedition, that we were under arreſt. Shortly after we learned that ſeveral others of our companions had ſhared the ſame fate, without being able to divine the cauſe of ſo arbitrary an act of authority; but we were ſoon informed that intelligence which Dauribeau had received from Europe, had determined him to hoiſt the white flag, and put himſelf under the protection of the Dutch, who were then at war with France. He had undoubtedly already then formed the project, which he afterward carried into execution, of ſelling the veſſels of our expedition. To inſure his ſucceſs, it was neceſſary for him to get rid of all thoſe perſons under him who he knew would ſtrongly diſapprove of ſuch a meaſure. We were therefore delivered into the hands of the Dutch as priſoners of war, to the number of ſeven, namely, Legrand, Laignel, Willaumez, Riche, Ventenat, Piron, and myſelf, and conducted to Samarang by a march of 200,000 toiſes, over roads bad in the extreme, and in the rainy ſeaſon. We were obliged to uſe boats to croſs ſeveral large plains, inundated by the torrents deſcending from the mountains ſituate to the ſouthward, and which form a part of the great chain which runs through the whole iſland of Java from eaſt to weſt.

Michel Sirot and Pierre Creno, ſervants on board the Eſperance, followed us in our proſcription.

'Dauribeau had robbed me of all my collections. When we left Sourabaya, I had intruſted to the care of Lahaie, the gardener, eleven bread-fruit trees, and an equal number of the roots and ſtems of this valuable plant, kept in clay in perfect preſervation, and fit to produce as many young trees. He promiſed to take the beſt care of them, and gave me a receipt for the depoſit.

'The greater part of the crews were thrown into the priſons of Tomogon of Sourabaya, from whence

they were taken out ſome time after, part to be ſent into thoſe of Batavia, and part to remain with Dauribeau.

'We left Sourabaya on the 24th of February.'

The laſt paſſage is too creditable to our countrymen to be omitted.

'On the 12th of March 1796, we caſt anchor at the Iſle of Bar, from whence I ſoon returned to Paris.

'Soon after I arrived in that city, I was informed that my collections of natural hiſtory had been ſent to England. The French government immediately put in their claim for them, which, being ſupported by ſir Joſeph Banks, preſident of the Royal Society of London, with all the exertions that were to have been expected from his known love for the ſciences, I ſoon had the ſatisfaction of finding myſelf again in poſſeſſion of the requiſite materials, for making known to the world the natural productions which I had diſcovered in the different countries we had viſited during the courſe of our expedition.

'The bread-fruit plants which I left in the cuſtody of the gardener Lahaie, were tranſported, with ſeveral others which he had cultivated, to Iſle de France; from whence ſome have been ſent to Cayenne, and others to Paris, where they are depoſited in the hot-houſes of the botanical garden.

ON THE TRICKS OF JUGGLERS.

JUGGLERS are a kind of people, whoſe profeſſion has not been often deemed either reſpectable or uſeful. Profeſſor Beckmann, however, has undertaken their defence; and in a long and learned chapter in his 'Hiſtory of Inventions,' pleads the cauſe of the practiſers of legerdemain; rope-dancers; perſons who place their bodies in poſitions apparently dangerous; and of thoſe who exhibit feats of uncommon ſtrength. All theſe men he claſſes under the general denomination of *Jugglers*; and taking it for granted, ſurely upon no good grounds, that every uſeful employment is full, he contends that there would not be room on the earth for all its preſent inhabitants, did not ſome of them practiſe the arts of juggling—the learned profeſſor might have as well added, ſwindling, picking of pockets, or robbing on the highway.—But let us hear his own words.

'Theſe arts, ſays he, are indeed not unprofitable, for they afford a comfortable ſubſiſtence to thoſe who practiſe them: but their gain is acquired by too little labour to be hoarded up; and, in general, theſe roving people ſpend on the ſpot the fruits of their ingenuity; which is an additional reaſon why their ſtay in a place ſhould be encouraged. But further, it often happens, that what ignorant perſons firſt employ, merely as a ſhow, for amuſement or deception, is afterward ennobled by being applied to a more important purpoſe. The machine with which a Savoyard, by means of ſhadows, amuſed children and the populace, was by Liberkhun converted into a ſolar microſcope; and to give one example more, the art of making ice in ſummer, or in a heated oven, enables gueſts, much to the credit of their hoſteſs, to cool the moſt expenſive diſhes. The Indian diſcovers precious ſtones, and the European, by poliſhing, gives them a luſtre.

'But,' if the arts of juggling ſerved no other end than to amuſe the moſt ignorant of our citizens, it is proper that they ſhould be encouraged for the ſake of thoſe, who cannot enjoy the more expenſive deceptions of an opera. They anſwer other purpoſes, however, than that of merely amuſing; they convey inſtruction in the moſt acceptable manner, and ſerve as an agreeable antidote to ſuperſtition, and to that popular belief in miracles, exorciſm, conjuration, ſorcery and witchcraft, from which our anceſtors ſuffered ſo ſeverely.—

Surely this reaſoning, as well as the cauſe in which it is brought forward, is unworthy the learning of Beckmann. It is indeed true, that jugglers ſpend their money freely, and that their arts afford them the means of ſubſiſtence; but it is very ſeldom, as our author muſt know, that they ſubſiſt either comfortably or innocently. Is it innocent to entice the ignorant and labouring poor, by uſeleſs deceptions, to part with their hard-earned pittance to idle vagabonds? or is the life of thoſe vagabonds comfortable, when it is paſſed amid ſcenes of the moſt groveling diſſipation? Jugglers ſpend indeed their money, for the moſt part, on the ſpot where it is gained: but they ſpend it in drunkenneſs, and other ſeducing vices, which corrupt their own morals and the morals of all with whom they aſſociate; and therefore their ſtay in a place ſhould certainly not be encouraged. Could it be proved that the ſolar microſcope would never have been invented, had not a Savoyard juggler contrived a ſimilar machine, to amuſe children and the rabble, ſome ſtreſs might be laid on the ſervice which ſuch wretches have rendered to ſcience; but where is the man that will ſuppoſe the philoſophy of Bacon and Newton to reſt upon the arts of juggling? or who conſiders the refinements of ſcience as of equal value with the morals of the people? There is at this moment a fellow exhibiting in the ſtreet the moſt indecent ſcenes by means of puppets, and keeping the mob in a conſtant roar. Is he innocently employed? or will any good man ſay that there is not room for him in the armies, which on the continent are fighting in the cauſe of God and humanity?

Our author endeavours to ſtrengthen his reaſoning by proving, which he does very completely, the antiquity of juggling. 'The deception,' ſays he, 'of breathing out flames, which at preſent excites, in a particular manner, the aſtoniſhment of the ignorant, is very ancient. When the ſlaves in Sicily, about a century and a half before our era, made a formidable inſurrection, and avenged themſelves in a cruel manner for the ſeverities which they had ſuffered, there was among them a Syrian named Eunus, a man of great craft and courage, who, having paſſed through many ſcenes of life, had become acquainted with a variety of arts. He pretended to have immediate communication with the gods; was the oracle and leader of his fellow ſlaves; and, as is uſual on ſuch occaſions, confirmed his divine miſſion by miracles. When, heated by enthuſiaſm, he was deſirous of inſpiring his followers with courage, he breathed flames or ſparks among them from his mouth, while he was addreſſing them. We are told by hiſtorians, that for this purpoſe he pierced a nut-ſhell at both ends, and, having filled it with ſome burning ſubſtance, put it into his mouth and breathed through it.

'This deception, at preſent, is performed much better. The juggler rolls together ſome flax or hemp, ſo as to form a ball about the ſize of a walnut; ſets it on fire; and ſuffers it to burn till it is nearly conſumed; he then rolls round it, while burning, ſome more flax; and by theſe means the fire may be retained in it for a long time. When he wiſhes to exhibit, he ſlips the ball unperceived into his mouth, and breathes through it, which again revives the fire, ſo that a number of weak ſparks proceed from it; and the performer ſuſtains no hurt, provided he inſpire the air not through the mouth but the noſtrils.

'For deceptions with fire the ancients employed alſo *naphtha*, a liquid mineral oil, which kindles when it only approaches a flame. Galen informs us, that a perſon excited great aſtoniſhment by extinguiſhing a candle and again lighting it, without any other proceſs than holding it immediately againſt a wall or a ſtone. The whole ſecret of this conſiſted in having previouſly rubbed over the wall or ſtone with ſulphur. But as the au-

thor, a few lines before, ſpeaks of a mixture of ſulphur and *naphtha*, we have reaſon to think that he alludes to the ſame here. Plutarch relates how Alexander the Great was aſtoniſhed and delighted with the ſecret effects of naphtha, which were exhibited to him at Ecbatana. The ſame author, as well as Pliny, Galen, and others, had already remarked, that the ſubſtance with which Medea deſtroyed Creuſa, the daughter of Creon, was nothing elſe than this fine oil. She ſent to the unfortunate princeſs a dreſs beſmeared with it, which burſt into flames as ſoon as ſhe approached the fire of the altar. The blood of Neſſus, in which the dreſs of Hercules, which took fire likewiſe, had been dipped, was undoubtedly naphtha alſo: and this oil muſt have been always employed, when offerings caught fire in an imperceptible manner.

'In modern times, perſons who could walk over burning coals or red-hot iron, or who could hold red-hot iron in their hands, have often excited wonder. But laying aſide the deception ſometimes practiſed on the ſpectators, the whole of this ſecret conſiſts in rendering the ſkin of the ſoles of the feet and hands ſo callous and inſenſible, that the nerves under them are ſecure from all hurt, in the ſame manner as by ſhoes and gloves. Such callofity will be produced if the ſkin is continually compreſſed, finged, pricked, or injured in any other manner. Thus do the fingers of the induſtrious ſempſtreſs become horny by being frequently pricked; and the caſe is the ſame with the hands of fire-workers, and the feet of thoſe who walk bareſooted over ſcorching ſand.

'In the month of September 1765, when I viſited the copper-works at Aweſtad, one of the workmen, for a little drink money, took ſome of the melted copper in his hand, and after ſhewing it to us, threw it againſt a wall. He then ſqueezed the fingers of his horny hand cloſe to each other; put it a few minutes under his armpit, to make it ſweat, as he ſaid; and, taking it again out, drew it over a ladle filled with melted copper, ſome of which he ſkimmed off, and moved his hand backward and forward, very quickly, by way of oſtentation. When I was viewing this performance, I remarked a ſmell like that of finged horn or leather, though his hand was not burnt. It is highly probable, that people who hold in their hands red-hot iron, or who walk upon it, as I ſaw done at Amſterdam, but at a diſtance, make their ſkin callous before, in the like manner. This may be accompliſhed by frequently moiſtening it with ſpirit of vitriol; according to ſome, the juice of certain plants will produce the ſame effect, and we are aſſured by others, that the ſkin muſt be very frequently rubbed, for a long time, with oil, by which means, indeed, leather alſo will become horny.'—

Our author then proves, in a very learned manner, that all theſe tricks were of high antiquity; that the Hirpi, who lived near Rome, jumped through burning coals; that women were accuſtomed to walk over burning coals at Caſtabala, in Cappadocia, near the temple dedicated to Diana; that the exhibition of cups and balls, is often mentioned in the works of the ancients; that in the third century, one Firmus, or Firmius, who endeavoured to make himſelf emperor in Egypt, ſuffered a ſmith to forge iron on an anvil placed on his breaſt; that rope-dancers with balancing poles are mentioned by Petronius and others; and that the various feats of horſemanſhip exhibited at our Circuſes, paſſed, in the thirteenth century, from Egypt to the Byzantine court, and thence over all Europe.

THE TABLE OF MODERN FAME. A VISION.

[By the late Dr. Akenſide.—Not inſerted in his Works.]

LAST night, after leaving the company, where I had ſpent the evening, I took up a volume of the Tatler, to conclude the day. I happened to light on that admired paper, where the moſt celebrated perſonages of antiquity are repreſented at the table of Fame. I was very agreeably amuſed with the venerable aſſembly, and the pleaſing manner in which they are introduced; till I had formed my own mind to that compoſure and ſtillneſs, which is the beſt preparative to a happy repoſe. As ſoon as I fell aſleep, methought I was walking in an immenſe plain, where I met a figure of great dignity, repreſenting a man in the full vigour of his age, clothed in a purple garment, with a rod of ſilver in his hand; he accoſted me, and I learned from his diſcourſe, that he had formerly lived upon our earth; but that now he was raiſed to the enjoyment of that felicity, which God has appointed for the reward of prudence and virtue. 'I ſee,' ſaid he, 'young man, that you are juſt returned from the manſion of *ancient* fame, and I perceive by your countenance, that you have not been thoroughly ſatisfied with the goddeſs of the place, or with the order of that aſſembly over which ſhe preſides. You mortals are prone to imagine that the ſmiles of *Fame* are always beſtowed according to the ſuffrage of virtue; but in this you find you are miſtaken. If your curioſity incline you to enquire into the management of *modern fame*, the younger ſiſter, follow me, and I will conduct you to her abode.'

Immediately he led me to a very ſpacious building, of a mixed and crude ſort of architecture, where, though I admired the expenſiveneſs of the materials, yet the ornaments, methought, were ill deſigned, and of a vulgar taſte: like a clumſy, ungraceful perſon dreſſed out in jewels and embroidery. I was particularly diſguſted to ſee among the ancient feſtoons of flowers, pipes and muſical reeds, which were adjuſted to the columns of the temple, to ſee mitres, and triple crowns, croiſiers, and other enſigns of eccleſiaſtical diſcipline. This building was ſurrounded with an innumerable crowd of people; and at each of the ſpacious doors, which opened on every ſide of it, I obſerved a tall majeſtical woman, attended with a crowd of figures, ſome like men with large volumes in their hands, and others reſembling the deſcriptions which poets have given us of the muſes. Theſe women, as my conductor informed me, were the guardians or genii of the ſeveral nations of the world. The hiſtorians and the muſes were continually moving from one to another, yet I obſerved that they never viſited ſome of the gates, where the women were almoſt naked, or dreſſed in turbans and painted feathers. We entered the temple. At the upper end ſat the goddeſs, on a throne of very uncommon ſtructure; it was compoſed of very different materials, laid out in a beautiful architectonic manner: I obſerved that military inſtruments, as ſtandards, ſwords, and pieces of artillery, moſt frequently appeared in the architecture; yet I likewiſe caſt my eye on teleſcopes, rudders, painting pallets, geometrical ſchemes, and inſtruments of handicraft. By the looks and motions of the people within the temple, I gueſſed that we were juſt come in to be preſent at ſome great ceremony; for I obſerved the muſes and hiſtorians ſtepping ever and anon from ſome or other of the gates, and whiſpering the goddeſs, who gave each of them directions, which I could not hear. I aſked my conductor the purpoſe of this great preparation; and what meant the twenty thrones which I counted round the temple, and why ſome of them were quite empty, while

others were laid hold of by certain perſons, who ſtood behind them, as if they were waiting for leave to ſit down. He anſwered me in the following manner. 'You are come from the table of *ancient fame:* the goddeſs there diſpoſed of her honours without reſerve or conditional change; her youngeſt ſiſter is not ſo conſtant: once in every century ſhe reviews her aſſembly, and frequently makes great alterations, removing her ſubjects from one ſeat to a lower, or a higher; admitting ſtrangers, or entirely excluding her former favourites. To-day is the anniverſary of her great eſtabliſhment: the empty ſeats formerly belonged to thoſe whom ſhe has now entirely baniſhed from her palace. Thoſe perſons whom you ſee ſtanding behind ſome of the thrones, have leave to renew their claim, and, if no other candidates obtain their place, will continue in the order which formerly belonged to them.' While he was ſpeaking, the goddeſs roſe from her ſeat, and commanded the ſeveral nations in her preſence to introduce their candidates in the order ſhe had enjoined them. Upon this all the crowd of ſpectators diſappeared, and the temple was left quite empty. After a ſhort pauſe the trumpet of the goddeſs ſounded, the whole fabrick ſhook, and my heart was filled with a rapture and aſtoniſhment, which I never felt before.

Immediately the temple was crowded again, and from the uppermoſt gate entered the moſt beautiful of thoſe divine women, the genius of Italy; ſhe led in a middle-aged man, in a very plain dreſs, who held in his hand a mariner's compaſs. The ſpectators, whoſe countenances expreſſed the moſt impatient ſuſpenſe, gave a confuſed acclamation, and I heard at once from a hundred mouths, the name of Columbus. He advanced toward the goddeſs, and ſat down on the higheſt place, with an air of eaſe, as if that ſeat had been long familiar to him. 'That,' ſaid my conductor, 'is the man who has enabled hiſtory to outdo fable; nor are the actions of the Grecian Hercules, either for greatneſs of imagination, or for boldneſs, or utility, comparable to the diſcovery of the new world; yet, perhaps, you will this day ſee another take place of him.'

The trumpet ſounded a ſecond time; while I was expecting ſome other perſonage from the gates, neareſt to the goddeſs, I obſerved a great hurry at the lower end of the temple. A woman, whom I had before taken notice of among thoſe who appeared almoſt naked and wild, advanced from her gate in a robe of furs, and other ſkins, and approached toward the goddeſs. The genii at the upper end expreſſed a mixture of ſurpriſe and indignation, that ſo ſavage a figure ſhould now dare to ſtep before them. As ſhe drew near, I obſerved the perſon whom ſhe conducted; he was a robuſt man in armour, with his own hair, a black eagle on his breaſt, and a carpenter's ax in his hand: I knew his habit, and with the crowd pronounced haſtily, the name of Peter the Great. He ſat down on the ſecond throne, and I could not help applauding the juſtice of the goddeſs.

The third perſon who appeared, was conducted by the repreſentative of Italy, but the moment he ſet his foot within the temple, the muſes, and all the attendant powers from the other gates ran up at once to uſher him; he ſeemed between thirty and forty years of age. The lyric, the comic, and the heroic muſe, a winged virgin with a lyre, another with a pallet, a third with a chiſſel and block of marble, and an infinite number of beautiful young figures did him honour as he paſſed: he returned their congratulations with ſmiles of the higheſt complaiſance, and ſeemed pleaſed with his introduction, chiefly as it ſecured him ſuch amiable companions. By his pontifical robes, I knew him for Leo X.

But our next perſonage was uſhered in a very different manner; he entered from the German gate; a great

noiſe of diſputants and logical terms preceded him, his face had a very bold, eager caſt, his eyes were keen, and his dreſs monkiſh. When he came to ſit down, ſeeing Leo on the throne next above him, he fell into a violent rage, and would needs have roſe again. Leo, on the other hand, turned from him with a ſmile of high contempt, and begged of the beautiful powers, who ſtood around him, that they would hide that rude creature from his eyes, and defend his ears with their harmony, from the jargon which he uttered. I was vexed at his being thruſt into ſo unſuitable a neighbourhood, and aſked my guide, who he was? 'His name,' ſaid he, 'is Martin Luther; he has done more good to mankind, than moſt of thoſe whoſe intentions were the beſt and moſt heroic; his character, his views and paſſions were contemptible and hateful. Remember what I told you, fame does not proceed on the award of wiſdom or virtue, but is governed ſolely by the revolutions of mortal things.'

I was angry and diſappointed that I had yet ſeen none of my countrymen, when the trumpet ſounded, and I beheld a figure entering from one of the upper gates, with a red croſs upon her ſhield, leading a venerable man in the decline of life. I remembered the face of ſir Iſaac Newton; he advanced in a very compoſed manner, without ſpeaking a word, or ſeeming to take notice of the acclamations which came from every part of the temple. All eyes were fixed upon him, and all were proud that they had ſeen him; yet I obſerved a man at the French gate, dreſſed in a very gaudy, fantaſtical habit, who repined bitterly, that his place was taken from him; while the guardian deity of his nation ſeemed to be muſing upon a thouſand ſchemes how to regain it. There was a man too, who advanced imprudently from the German gate, and would have driven Newton from his ſeat by force; he was a very odd figure, with a night-cap on his head, a mathematical diagram in one hand, and a bottle of rheniſh in the other. The goddeſs ordered him to be chaſtiſed for a robber, and turned out with infamy.

At the next trumpet, the gay lady whoſe robes were flowered with lillies, left her favourite Des Cartes, about whom, till that moment, ſhe had been ſo ſolicitous, and turned to introduce a tall graceful man, who walked along in a full-bottomed wig, with infinite ſelf-applauſe. When he ſaw Leo, he made a very complaiſant bow: yet as Shakſpeare ſays, 'he quenched his familiar ſmile, with an auſtere regard of controul.' I ſuppoſe it was Lewis XIV, and complained to my guide that ſuch a man ſhould be ſo honoured. 'Have patience;' ſaid he, 'meet me here a hundred years hence, and you ſhall ſee the goddeſs order him under ground, to the houſe of *evil fame*; at preſent, ſhe muſt have her way. Look round, and ſee if you are better ſatisfied with him who comes next.'

I ſaw a compoſed, matron-like figure, bring in a man in armour, with ſigns of the higheſt veneration and gratitude. 'That,' ſaid my conductor, 'is William I, prince of Orange, a name that muſt be venerable upon your globe, as long as public virtue is remembered among you; and of this divine man, I can propheſy, that he will never loſe his place. The youth who is now entering, will perhaps give you more pleaſure; and indeed, though his merits and actions are not of ſo high a kind, yet his virtue ſhone perhaps in a more ſevere trial, in a courſe of uninterrupted proſperity; ſo that if his times had given him an opportunity, he was equal to any thing which can be acted by a man and a ſoldier.' I looked round, and beheld from the Engliſh gate a young man in armour, with a ſpear of ebony, and beautiful as Raphael or Milton could imagine. You need not, ſaid I, tell me who this is; I ſee the motto of Wales on his ſhield, and the fable ſpear in his hand, which has rendered the name of Edward, or of

Plantagenet, uſeleſs. All hail! thou blameleſs ornament of my native country.—I was going on in a kind of enthuſiaſm, when my conductor checked me, and bade me take notice of the next who entered. I found a greater noiſe and diſorder than I had obſerved before. Germany and Spain had joined to introduce a coarſe, robuſt man; and France endeavoured to place before him a tall, majeſtic perſon, with a crown on his head, who looked upon his antagoniſt with an air of reproach and diſdain. This was Francis I. However, his opponent got the better, and took his place accordingly. By the imperial eagle, which he wore at his breaſt, I ſuppoſed it to be Charles V. At ſitting down, he laughed at his adverſary, 'And,' ſays he, 'if I muſt have given way, it ſhould never have been to that doughty, romantic knight, my priſoner; but to this great man, who gave me immortality,' pointing to Titian, who ſtood in the crowd of his attendants.

The next perſon that entered, was dreſſed in a morning-gown, and uſhered in by the lady of the Red-croſs. He had no ſymbol nor inſtrument in his hand; but ſhowed a very thoughtful and penetrating countenance. He walked up in a profound ſilence, and made no return, but a look of grave diſpleaſure, to the ſalutation of his next neighbour. However, he took very reſpectful notice of ſome at the table, particularly of Columbus and Newton. Leo ſeemed afraid of him, Luther made him a very gracious bow, and would have been extremely intimate with him; but received a cold, forbidding frown. By this account of him, the reader will know as well as I did, who ſaw what paſſed, that this was Locke. The next entrance was made from the Italian gate, and there appeared a thin, meagre man, whoſe countenance expreſſed great pain and dejection of ſpirit, as if he had been worn out with famine and torture. He held in his hand a teleſcope; and my conductor told me it was Galileo, whoſe face retained thoſe indelible marks of the blind, brutal zeal of his ghoſtly tormentors. He ſat down by Locke, who ſeemed infinitely pleaſed with his company, and told him that he had been endeavouring to cure mankind of that ſtupid reverence for ruffians and murders, who maſked their inhumanity with the name of religion. After the next trumpet, there was a long pauſe, and nobody appeared. I heard a buſtle at the German gate. The goddeſs aſked what was the matter. The robuſt German tutelary made anſwer, that ſhe was introducing one, who, if uſeful diſcoveries could challenge reſpect in that place, was perhaps entitled to the higheſt ſeat. Immediately I heard words of a rough ſound; Guttemberg, Fuſt, Mentz, Straſburgh! I then underſtood that the crowd of Germans at that gate, were diſputing which of them ſhould enter as the diſcoverer of printing. The conteſt continued a long time, and grew ſtill more violent. Upon which the goddeſs ſpoke out, that when they could agree about the inventor, ſhe would frankly allow his claim; but that till then, ſhe would put in his place, one whoſe merit and whoſe glory was now unqueſtionably eſtabliſhed, after as great diſputes about it, as had ever divided her ſubjects. Upon this ſhe made a ſign to the *Red-croſs* lady, who accordingly introduced a venerable old man, whom I did not at all know. He was attended by a female figure with a *patera* in her hand, reſembling the ancient figures of Salus. I was ſurpriſed at the ſight of an Engliſh worthy, with whom I was not acquainted; but my guide informed me, that his name was Harvey. 'And ſee,' ſaid he, 'how enviouſly thoſe other tutelar genii regard him,' pointing to France and Italy.

The trumpet again ſounded, and the guardian of Italy moved. As ſoon as ſhe returned, there was a confuſed noiſe of *evil fame!* and *downward with him!* A great herd of prieſts

and monks, and prime miniſters joined in the cry; and among them was a young man, with a crown on his head, who made the loudeſt noiſe, and who aſſured the goddeſs of fame that the perſon coming in was an abandoned profligate, and that he himſelf had a much better title to the next vacant ſeat. The goddeſs looked on him with great contempt, and bid him hold his peace, elſe ſhe would order him below ſtairs, and put him again under his father's tuition. At this he was ſilent, and Machiavel appeared. Leo gave him a very familiar look, as if he was glad to ſee him, and congratulated him upon the honour which he had now obtained, of being ſeated at the ſame table with one of the great family, who had been his old patrons. But Machiavel anſwered him only with a look of ſhame, diſlike, and indignation. The Italian genius moved again toward the gate, and returned with two men, not being able to reſolve which of them ſhould enter.

Theſe were Taſſo and Arioſto. She herſelf inclined chiefly to the latter; but the majority of the ſpectators oppoſed it, and Taſſo took his place. At the next trumpet, the tutelary of France went out with the aſſured air that was natural to her, and brought in a tall, ſlender man, in a large wig, with a very fine ſneer upon his face. She ſaid his name was Boileau, and that nobody could pretend to diſpute that place with him. However the ſtately genius of England oppoſed her; her remonſtrances prevailed, and Pope took the place, which Boileau thought belonged to him. Upon this, there aroſe among the other genii a great clamour againſt the red-croſs lady, mixed with many ſigns of ridicule and ſcorn. She aſked what they were diſpleaſed at. They anſwered, that ſhe ſhould contend ſo eagerly for her own glory, and yet ſo obſtinately neglect a claim upon which ſhe might beſt found it; and which, whenever ſhe advanced it, they would all give way to. She turned round, and ſaw Bacon ready to enter, without aſking her to conduct him. She looked at him with great diſguſt; yet with ſuch an air as a tender mother diſcovers, when her favourite child is guilty of ſome inexcuſable fault. She led him in with great reluctance, and ſhewed him his place, the next vacant one below Pope. He ſtood, and looked upon it, and all the ſpectators ſeemed aſhamed that he had not a higher ſeat. Locke, Newton, Harvey, and Machiavel, all cried out to Pope to riſe, and give place; but he took no notice of them, only he turned his head another way; and I heard him mutter the words *wiſeſt, brighteſt, meaneſt.* Upon this Bacon looked around, and drew the eyes of all the aſſembly. His preſence, at that time, had an effect upon them, like the preſence of a deſcended god upon thoſe mortals, whom he favours with his converſe. Then raiſing his head, 'Sure I am,' ſaid he, with a voice of authority, and a moſt graceful manner,' 'ſure I am, that if there be any place belonging to me in this aſſembly, it muſt be one neareſt to the goddeſs; and one where I may beſt avail myſelf of her power.' Immediately the aſſembly with one accord invited him forward; the goddeſs beckoned him to draw near, and ſeated him on the higheſt throne. Columbus himſelf officiouſly gave way; telling him that the diſcovery of a new world was but a ſlender acquiſition of crude materials, to be improved and perfected in that immenſe world of human knowledge and human power, which he had firſt diſcovered, and through which he had taught other mortals to travel with ſecurity.

The next that entered was a man in iron armour, with a baſket-hilted ſword. France, Germany, and Italy, turned pale at the ſight of him; and I heard them whiſper the name of Guſtavus Adolphus. He was followed by a beautiful youth, of a very ſweet and gentle aſpect. As he drew nearer I knew him to be Raphael. Leo heard of his admiſſion with an

extravagant joy, and could hardly be reſtrained from quitting his place, that he might ſit next him. Then appeared a blind, old man, with the air of an ancient prophet, ſupported and led in by the genius of England. When I knew him, I was extremely diſcontented that no more honourable place had been reſerved for Milton. 'You forget,' ſaid my conductor,' that the loweſt place in this aſſembly is one of twenty, the moſt honourable gifts which fame has to beſtow among the whole human ſpecies. Milton is now admitted for the firſt time, and was not but with difficulty admitted at all. But have patience for a few years longer; he will be continually aſcending in the goddeſs' favour, and may perhaps at laſt obtain the higheſt, or at leaſt the ſecond place in theſe her ſolemnities. In the mean time, ſee how he is received, by the man who is beſt qualified here to judge of his dignity.' I looked at him again, and ſaw Raphael making him the moſt affectionate congratulations, accounting himſelf happy that he was ſeated next him, and inſiſting on his taking the ſuperior hand. There now remained but one place to be diſpoſed of. The tutelar deity of Spain led in, toward it, a ſlender man, with black piercing eyes, an aquiline noſe, and a ſwarthy complexion. He had loſt one of his hands, by which mark I knew him to be Cervantes. He expected no oppoſition, as the place had formerly belonged to him, but in this point he was miſtaken. For Moliere advanced from the French entrance, and diſputed the chair, with infinite pleaſantry and good-humour. Cervantes, however, kept his place; but while their controverſy was hardly yet decided, a third candidate appeared, with a great ſhout of clamorous mirth from the whole aſſembly. They told me he had bruſhed in by ſtealth, and in ſpite of the grave lady, who conducted his countrymen, I knew the arch leer, the nut-brown bays, and the Foppington ſtep of my facetious friend, Colley Cibber. But his appearance, his arguments, and the eloquence with which he delivered them, quite disjointed the remainder of my dream, and I waked in a very hearty fit of laughter.

BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE SCOTCH AND ENGLISH FISHERIES.

THE ſituation of the Britiſh coaſts is the moſt advantageous in the world for the catching of fiſh, and it muſt therefore ever remain a paradox, why fiſh in almoſt every part of the kingdom, is, by its price, a luxury. The Scottiſh iſlands, particularly thoſe to the north and weſt, lie moſt commodious for carrying on the fiſhing trade to perfection; for no country in Europe can pretend to come up to Scotland, in the abundance of the fineſt fiſh, with which its various creeks, bays, rivers, lakes, and coaſts, are repleniſhed. Of theſe advantages, the Scotch ſeem, indeed, to have been abundantly ſenſible; and their traffic in herrings, the moſt valuable of all the fiſheries, is noticed in hiſtory ſo early as the ninth century. The frequent laws which were enacted in the reigns of James III, IV and V, diſcover a ſteady and determined zeal for the benefit of the native ſubjects, and the full reſtoration of the fiſheries, which the Dutch had latterly found means to engroſs, and do honour to the memory of thoſe patriots whom modern times affect to call barbarians.

The expedition of James V, to the Hebrides and weſtern parts of the Highlands, and his aſſiduity in exploring and ſounding the harbours, diſcovered a fixed reſolution in that active prince, to civilize the inhabitants, to promote the valuable fiſheries at their doors, and to introduce general induſtry. His death, at an early period, and the ſubſequent religious and civil commotions in the kingdom, fruſtrated theſe wiſe deſigns, and the

weſtern fiſheries remained in their original ſtate of neglect. At length, 1602, James VI reſumed the national purpoſes which had been thus chalked out by his grandfather. Three towns, which might ſerve as a retreat for the induſtrious, and a nurſery for the arts and commerce, were appointed to be built in different parts of the Highlands; one in Cantire, another in Lochaber; and a third in the iſle of Lewis; and in order to draw the inhabitants thither, all the privileges of the royal boroughs were to be conferred upon them. Finding it, however, to be no eaſy matter to inſpire the inhabitants of thoſe countries with the love of induſtry, a reſolution was taken to plant among them colonies of people from the more induſtrious countries. The firſt experiment was made in the iſle of Lewis, and as it was advantageouſly ſituate for the fiſhing trade (a ſource from which Scotland ought naturally to derive great wealth) the colony tranſported thither was drawn out of Fife, the inhabitants of which were well ſkilled in that branch of commerce. But before they had remained there long enough to manifeſt the good effects of this inſtitution, the iſlanders, enraged at ſeeing their country occupied by theſe intruders, took arms, and ſurpriſing them in the night time, murdered ſome of them, and compelled the reſt to abandon the ſettlement. The king's attention being ſoon turned to other objects, particularly to his ſucceſſion to the Engliſh crown, we hear no more of this ſalutary project.

The Scottiſh fiſheries were, however, reſumed by Charles I, who ordained an aſſociation of the three kingdoms, for a general fiſhing within the whole ſeas and coaſts of his majeſty's ſaid kingdoms; and, for the government of the ſaid aſſociation, ordained, that there ſhould be a ſtanding committee choſen and nominated by his majeſty, and his ſucceſſors from time to time, &c. Several perſons of diſtinction embarked in the deſign, which the king honoured with his patronage, and encouraged by his bounty. He alſo ordered *Lent* to be more ſtrictly obſerved; prohibited the importation of fiſh taken by foreigners; and agreed to purchaſe from the company his naval ſtores, and the fiſh for his fleets. Thus the ſcheme of eſtabliſhing a fiſhery in the Hebrides began to aſſume a favourable aſpect; but all the hopes of the adventurers were fruſtrated by the breaking out of the civil wars, and the very tragical death of their benefactor.

In 1661, Charles II, the duke of York, lord Clarendon, and other perſons of rank and fortune, reſumed the buſineſs of the fiſheries, with greater vigour than any of their predeceſſors. For this purpoſe the moſt ſalutary laws were enacted by the parliaments of England and Scotland; in virtue of which, all materials uſed in, or depending upon, the fiſheries, were exempted from all duties, exciſes, or impoſts whatſoever. In England, the company were authoriſed to ſet up a lottery, and to have a voluntary collection in all pariſh churches; houſes of entertainment, as taverns, inns, alehouſes, were to take one or more barrels of herrings, at the ſtated price of thirty ſhillings *per* barrel; alſo 2s 6d *per* barrel was to be paid to the ſtock of this company, on all imported fiſh taken by foreigners. Some Dutch families were alſo invited, or permitted, to ſettle at Stornaway: the herrings cured by the royal Engliſh company gave general ſatisfaction, and as mentioned above, brought a high price for thoſe days. Every circumſtance attending this new eſtabliſhment ſeemed to be the reſult of a judicious plan and thorough knowledge of the buſineſs, when the neceſſities of the king obliged him to withdraw his ſubſcription or bounty; which gave ſuch umbrage to the parties concerned, that they ſoon after diſſolved.

In 1677, a new royal company was eſtabliſhed in England, at the head of which was the duke of York, the earl of Derby, &c. Beſide all the privi-

leges which former companies had enjoyed, the king granted this new company a perpetuity, with power to purchaſe lands; and alſo 20l to be paid them annually, out of the cuſtoms of the port of London, for every dogger or buſs they ſhould build and ſend out for ſeven years to come. A ſtock of 1098l, was immediately advanced, and afterward 1600l more. This ſmall capital was ſoon exhauſted in purchaſing and fitting out buſſes, and other incidental expences. The company made, however, a ſucceſsful beginning: and one of their doggers or buſſes actually took and brought home 32,000 cod-fiſh; other veſſels had alſo a favourable fiſhery. Such favourable beginnings might have excited freſh ſubſcriptions, when an unforeſeen event ruined the whole deſign beyond the poſſibility of diſcovery. Moſt of the buſſes had been built in Holland, and manned with Dutchmen; on which pretence the French, who were then at war with Holland, ſeized ſix out of ſeven veſſels, with their cargoes and fiſhing tackle; and the company being now in debt, ſold in 1680, the remaining ſtores, &c. A number of gentlemen and merchants raiſed a new ſubſcription of 60,000l, under the privileges and immunities of the former charter. This attempt alſo came to nothing, owing to the death of the king, and the troubles of the ſubſequent reign.

Soon after the revolution, this buſineſs was again reſumed, and upon a more extenſive ſcale; the propoſed capital being 300,000l, of which 100,000l was to have been raiſed by the ſurviving patentees or their ſucceſſors, and 200,000l, by new ſubſcribers. Copies of the letters patent, the conſtitution of the company, and terms of ſubſcription, were lodged at ſundry places in London and Weſtminſter, for the peruſal of the public, while the ſubſcription was filling. It is probable that king William's partiality to the Dutch fiſheries, the ſucceeding war, or both of theſe circumſtances, fruſtrated this new attempt; of which we have no further account in that reign, or ſince.

The Scotch parliament had alſo, during the three laſt reigns, paſſed ſundry acts for erecting companies and promoting the fiſheries; but the inteſtine commotions of that country, and the great exertions which were made for the Darian eſtabliſhment, enfeebled all other attempts, whether collectively or by individuals, within that kingdom.

In 1749, his late majeſty, having, at the opening of the parliament, warmly recommended the improvement of the fiſheries, the houſe of commons appointed a committee to enquire into the ſtate of the herring and white fiſheries, and to conſider of the moſt probable means of extending the ſame. All ranks of men were elevated with an idea of the boundleſs riches, that would flow into the kingdom from this ſource. A ſubſcription of 500,000l was immediately filled in the city, by a body of men who were incorporated for twenty-one years by the name of 'The Society of the Free Britiſh Fiſhery.' Every encouragement was held out by government, both to the ſociety and to individuals, who might embark in this national buſineſs. A bounty of 36s *per* ton, was to be paid annually out of the cuſtoms, for fourteen years, to the owners of all decked veſſels or buſſes, from twenty to eighty tons burthen, which ſhould be built after the commencement of the act, for the uſe of, and fitted out, and employed in, the ſaid fiſheries, whether by the ſociety or any other perſons. At the ſame time numerous pamphlets and newſpaper eſſays came forth; all pretending to elucidate the ſubject, and to convince the public with what facility the herring fiſheries might be tranſferred from Dutch to Britiſh hands. This proved, however, a more arduous taſk than had been foreſeen by ſuperficial ſpeculators. The Dutch were frugal in their expenditures and living; perfect maſters of the arts of fiſhing and curing, which they had

carried to the greateſt height and perfection. They were in full poſſeſſion of the European markets; and their fiſh, whether deſerving or otherwiſe, had the reputation of ſuperior qualities to all others taken in our ſeas. With ſuch advantages, the Dutch not only maintained their ground againſt this formidable company, but had alſo the pleaſure of ſeeing the capital gradually ſinking, without having procured an adequate return to the adventurers; notwithſtanding various aids and efforts of government from time to time in their favour, particularly in 1757, when an advance of 20s *per* ton was added to the bounty.

In 1786, the public attention was again called to the ſtate of the Britiſh fiſheries, by the ſuggeſtions of Mr. Dempſter, in the houſe of commons, and by different publications that appeared upon the ſubject: in conſequence of which a committee was named to enquire into the buſineſs. To that committee it appeared, that the beſt way of improving the fiſheries was to encourage the inhabitants, living neareſt to the ſeat of them to become fiſhers: and it being found that the north-weſtern coaſt of the kingdom, though abounding with fiſh and with fine harbours, was utterly deſtitute of towns, a corporation was formed, by the name of 'The Britiſh Society for extending of the Fiſheries and improving the Sea-coaſts of this kingdom;' and they were enabled to ſubſcribe a joint ſtock, to purchaſe lands, and build thereon free towns, villages and fiſhing ſtations, in the Highlands and iſlands of Scotland. Conſiderable progreſs has been made in this ſcheme, and it is not to be doubted that it will ultimately tend to the increaſe of this important article, whether conſidered with reſpect to diet, or as a ſource of wealth and induſtry.

The HISTORY *of* KNOWLEDGE, LEARNING, *and* TASTE, *in* Great Britain, *during the Reign of King* CHARLES II. *Part* III *.

[From the New Annual Regiſter, for the Year 1799.]

FOR the general character of the age of Charles, we muſt refer to the introduction to our firſt part. It was an age in which genius burſt forth without encouragement, and philoſophy revived without patronage. It was the age of profligacy, atheiſm, and bad taſte. The hiſtorian had little to record but faction and injuſtice; and the poet, if he painted from nature, had nothing to celebrate but ſcenes which were adapted only to the pencil of a Petronius. The really eminent in this period were a few individuals, who roſe ſuperior to the corrupt morals, and illiberal ſentiments of the times.

Of the illuſtrious Clarendon mention has already been made, in treating of the political character of the times; but he is now better known by his merits as an hiſtorian than as a ſtateſman, though his integrity and wiſdom were equally eminent in both. He had attended the king in his exile, who appointed him lord chancellor of England, and firſt miniſter of ſtate, with the univerſal approbation of his people. While Charles was directed by him, his conduct was diſtinguiſhed by lenity and moderation; he declined being the judge of his own or of his father's wrongs; the army that had ſo long governed the nation was diſbanded; all the ceremonies of the church of England were reſtored; and, while he uniformly preſerved an air of neutrality which removed prejudices, his whole behaviour was well calculated to ſupport and increaſe popularity.

But the virtue of Clarendon was of

* See the Univerſal Magazine, vol. 103, page 261, for Part 1; and vol. 105, page 307, for Part 2.

too ſtubborn a nature for the age in which he lived: had he been content to have enſlaved millions, he might have been more a monarch than his king; but he not only conſidered it his duty to be the guardian of the laws of his country, but the cenſor of the vice and immorality of the court.

It is not extraordinary that ſuch a man ſhould have been obnoxious to the courtiers: his manners alone impreſſed them with awe; his life was a reproach to them; and he preferred being a victim himſelf, rather than abet, under whatever ſanction, the infamous pleaſures of his royal maſter.

No circumſtance is ſuppoſed to have contributed more to his downfal than his having prevented Charles from repudiating his queen to marry Mrs. Stuart, for whom the king had conceived a paſſion equally violent, and more conſtant than the generality of his attachments were.—Clarendon was the means of a private marriage taking place between that lady and the duke of Richmond.

This honourable conduct Charles never could forgive; but he waited for ſome better pretence to remove him; and an opportunity was not long wanting. Charles had declared war againſt the Dutch, with a view of recruiting the ſupply for his amuſements, as the money appointed for that purpoſe was to go through his hands. The war terminated ſo far unſucceſſfully, that this end was defeated, and a treaty concluded at Breda, which was then conſidered as inglorious, though the colony of New York was ceded by the Dutch to the Engliſh, and continued a moſt valuable acquiſition till the preſent time.

But this was the ſignal of Clarendon's overthrow: he had adviſed the peace, and it was called diſgraceful to the nation. The king readily gave him up to the reſentment of the parliament; a charge was opened againſt him, conſiſting of vulgar rumours, not one of which could be proved; indeed the proſecution ended greatly to his honour, but his enemies advanced conſiderably in their deſigns, by throwing upon him the conſequences of their own miſconduct. Theſe calumnies rendered him leſs popular among the people, and in the end achieved his ruin.

He was removed from his poſt of chancellor 1667, and impeached by the houſe of commons of high treaſon: finding the popular torrent united to the violence of power running againſt him, he withdrew to France. The legiſlature paſſed a bill of incapacity and baniſhment, while he continued to reſide there, employing his leiſure in reducing his Hiſtory of the Civil War into form, for which he had before collected the materials.

He died at Rouen, in the year 1673.

Such was the unworthy fate of the earl of Clarendon, a nobleman of unblemiſhed virtue, an incorruptible judge, and an able miniſter:—but his reward is with the Moſt High!

Clarendon, as a writer, poſſeſſed all that knowledge of his ſubject, all that ſtrength of head and integrity of heart, which are eſſential to a good hiſtorian: he has been accuſed of partiality, but this proceeded from an amiable, perhaps an invincible cauſe—the fervour of loyalty.

His ſtyle is prolix, clogged with parentheſis; but it has been pronounced by a great maſter in criticiſm * 'to be the effuſion of a mind crowded with ideas, and deſirous of imparting them; and therefore always accumulating words, and involving one clauſe and ſentence in another.'

There is in his negligence a rude and inartificial majeſty, which, without the nicety of laboured elegance, ſwells the mind by its plenitude and diffuſion. His narrative is not, perhaps, ſufficiently rapid, being ſtopped too frequently by particularities; which, though they might ſtrike the author, who was preſent at the tranſactions, will not equally detain the

* Dr. Johnſon.

attention of poſterity; but his ignorance, or careleſſneſs, of the art of writing are amply compenſated by his knowledge of nature and of policy, by the wiſdom of his maxims, the juſtneſs of his reaſonings, and the variety, diſtinctneſs, and ſtrength of his characters.

Bulſtrode Whitelocke, the memorialiſt, deſerves a diſtinguiſhed place among the writers of Engliſh hiſtory. He had a great ſhare in thoſe tranſactions of which he has given us an account, and, as an impartial narrator, is perhaps ſuperior to Clarendon; he was a man of a clear and cool head; and though zealous in the cauſe which he eſpouſed, was rarely miſled by his affections, and never known to be tranſported to bigotry. The editor of his memorials of the Engliſh affairs obſerves 'that he ſometimes writes up to the dignity of an hiſtorian, and elſewhere is content to ſet down occurrences diary-wiſe, never intending this for a book in print, but merely for his own memory and uſe; yet ſuch was his relation to the public, ſo eminent his ſtation, and ſo much was he on the ſtage during all the time of the action, that the particulars of his diary go very far toward a complete hiſtory of his times. He not only ſerved the ſtate in ſeveral ſtations and places of truſt of the higheſt importance, acquitting himſelf with great reputation, but likewiſe converſed with books, and acquired large treaſures of knowledge and contemplations. Like Portius Ceſar, deſcribed by Nepos, he was "Republicæ peritus, et juriſconſultus, et magnus imperator, et cupidiſſimus literarum:" nor was the felicity of his pen leſs conſiderable than his knowledge of affairs, or leſs ſerviceable to the cauſe which he eſpouſed.'

Clarendon has left this teſtimony of his merit: 'Whitelocke was a man of eminent parts and great learning out of his profeſſion, and ſingular reputation in it: if he ſwerved from his allegiance, it was with leſs rancour and malice than other men; he never led but followed, and was rather carried away with the torrent than ſwam with the ſtream.' Whitelocke wrote memorials of the Engliſh affairs from the ſuppoſed expedition of Brute to this iſle, to the end of James 1, publiſhed with an account of his life and writings, by William Pen. He died in 1675.

The character of Edmund Ludlow is ſeen in the fulleſt light by contraſting him with his antagoniſt, Cromwell; ſince, if we accept their valour, in which they were equal, there could not exiſt two more different men.

Ludlow was ſincerely and ſteadily a republican; Cromwell not attached to any kind of government, and leaſt of all perhaps to that. Ludlow ſpoke his mind plainly, and was never taken for any other than what he profeſſed himſelf to be. Cromwell valued himſelf on acting a part, or rather ſeveral parts *well*; and when he performed that of a commonwealth's man, he performed it ſo admirably, that though Ludlow knew him to be a hypocrite, he thought he had now thrown off the maſk. Ludlow was entirely devoted to the parliament, and would have implicitly obeyed their orders, eſpecially after it was reduced to the rump. Cromwell never undertook any buſineſs for them but with a view to his own intereſt.

The memoirs of Ludlow were publiſhed after his death, at Vevay, in the canton of Berne, Switzerland; and for plainneſs and candour, integrity and ſpirit, few writings of the kind can be compared with them. It remains a ſtain to this hour on the character of the whig parliament, in the reign of William, that when Ludlow, depreſſed with years and with perſecution, wiſhed to reviſit his native land, at a period when he expected to ſee the cauſe of liberty triumphant, and the conſtitution reſtored (as in fact it was) the parliament, led rather by faction than influenced by patriotiſm and juſtice, refuſed him an aſylum. Sir Edward Seymour, the man who had obtained poſſeſſion of Ludlow's eſtate, had the unparalleled effrontery to move the reſolution in the

commons againſt reverſing his outlawry.

Algernon Sidney is rather to be regarded as a politician than as an hiſtorian; though it is not even certain that his Treatiſe of Government was ever meant for the public eye. He was one of thoſe ſpeculative politicians who amuſe themſelves with theories, which the depravity of human nature will never admit of being reduced to practice. Early diſguſted with the abuſes of regal power, he was as zealous a republican on principle as others were from animoſity and faction. As Sidney had taken a diſtinguiſhed part on the republican ſide, he did not accept of the general act of indemnity after the reſtoration, but received a particular pardon from the perfidious Charles. After this he was implicated in the Rye-houſe plot, the very exiſtence of which ſeems, upon good authority, to be now denied. In November 1683, he was tried and condemned by a packed jury and an infamous judge; only one witneſs appeared againſt him, but his papers on government were deemed equivalent to another: in theſe he had aſſerted, 'that power is delegated from the people to the prince, and that he is accountable to them for the abuſe of it.' This was not only conſidered as treaſon, but blaſphemy againſt the vicegerents of the great governor of the world. He was executed, to the diſgrace of the nation, on the 7th of December 1683.

To the memory of Sidney, as well as of his fellow martyr, lord Ruſſell, juſtice was rendered, though too late, at that moſt brilliant period of Engliſh hiſtory, the firſt year of Willam and Mary, when the attainder was reverſed by the parliament, with ſcarcely a diſſentient voice. Hume, with his uſual accuracy and impartiality, has laboured to prove the reality of the Rye-houſe plot; but whoever relies upon Hume as an hiſtorian, will find himſelf as much miſled in his politics as in his religion. He writes with that regard to truth which may be expected from an atheiſt, and with that accuracy which is to be looked for in an author whoſe only God was gain.

With his uſual veracity, Mr. Hume has repreſented Sidney as a deiſt, at leaſt, if not an atheiſt, becauſe he did not attend the public worſhip of any ſect of Chriſtians. Why did not this correct hiſtorian affix the ſame ſtigma upon Milton? The fact is, the religious tenets of Sidney had ſome affinity with thoſe of the quietiſts, or the quakers. He conſidered religion as a divine philoſophy, which exiſted only in the mind and ſpirit, and had no connection with external obſervances—a pure and ſimple communication between God and our own ſouls. Thus he was more of a viſionary and enthuſiaſt than an infidel. In his private character, he was a man of extraordinary courage and of almoſt invincible obſtinacy. The ſtrange calumny of modern times, therefore, which repreſents him as the penſioner and tool of France, meets a full confutation in the conſideration of the greateſt blemiſh in his character. From his undeſerved fate, his writings have had more popularity than they perhaps deſerve. It has been ſaid, that they may be eſteemed an ample compenſation for Cicero's ſix books, 'De Republica,' which are loſt. Of the truth of this eſtimate it is not eaſy to form an opinion, as the compariſon is not within our reach. From the beſt treatiſe on government, all that can be learned are a few maxims, which, on particular occaſions, the ſtateſman or legiſlator may reduce to practice; but a perfect theory on this ſubject we expect as little to ſee as a perfect government itſelf. So much will depend upon national character, upon times and circumſtances, that it may be doubted whether any form can be preſcribed to ſuit every nation on every occaſion; and after all, the preſervation of liberty will depend more upon the ſpirit, the morals, the character of a people, than on the form of its government. Rome was en-

ſlaved while the republican form was ſtrictly obſerved; while Britain, under a monarchy, has enjoyed as much liberty as human nature, perhaps, is capable of enjoying. While we ſay this, it is but juſtice to add, that Sidney was a man of great reading and of ſtrong ſenſe; and perhaps no man ever thought more intenſely upon the ſcience of government, or poſſeſſed better opportunities for collecting information on the ſubject.

Shafteſbury, though a politician, is rather to be regarded as an orator and a ſtateſman than as an author, as ſcarcely any thing of his is extant but his ſpeeches in parliament. He was a member of the long parliament, and had great influence with the preſbyterians: he had been a favourite of Cromwell, and afterward had a conſiderable hand in the reſtoration. His paſſions were violent, his principles flexible, his talents univerſal; and, while he changed his party as ſuited his intereſt or ambition, he never was accuſed of betraying his friends. When we conſider him ſitting in the higheſt tribunal in the kingdom, explaining the laws, detecting frauds, exerting all the powers of his eloquence on the ſide of juſtice, we admire the able lawyer, the irreſiſtible orator, the upright judge; but when he enters into the iniquitous meaſures of the *cabal*, proſtitutes his eloquence to enſlave his country, and becomes the factious leader, the popular incendiary, we regard him with a mixture of equal deteſtation and regret. After a life of extraordinary viciſſitudes, he died in Holland, in a kind of voluntary exile, in 1682. It is remarkable, that he was (as well as Maynard, we think, and chief-juſtice Hales) a member of that committee for reviſing the laws, under the proteſtorſhip of Cromwell, whom Mr. Hume, with his accuſtomed accuracy, brands as a collection of ignorant blockheads, who were for ſetting aſide the whole body of Engliſh law, and ſubſtituting the Jewiſh law in its ſtead.

Hobbes we have conſidered as a metaphyſician, but he was alſo a political writer. He unqueſtionably poſſeſſed much learning, more thinking, and not a little knowledge of the world. His ſtyle is incomparably better than that of any other writer in the reign of Charles II, and, for its ſtrength and purity, was ſcarcely equalled in the ſucceeding. He was for ſtriking out new paths in ſcience, in government, and in religion; but as his ethics have a ſtrong tendency to corrupt the morals, ſo have his politics to deſtroy the liberty of every human creature. He is repreſented as a ſceptic in religion, and a dogmatiſt in philoſophy; but, in fact, he was a dogmatiſt in both. The principles of his Leviathan are as little founded in moral or evangelical truth as his plan for ſquaring the circle in mathematical demonſtration.

In tranſlation he has done as much juſtice to Thucydides as injury to Homer; but he conſidered himſelf born for greater things than treading in the footſteps of his predeceſſors. His book on Human Nature is eſteemed the beſt of his works. He died in 1675.

THE GLEANER.

NUMBER XXVII.

I AM indebted to the aſſiſtance of a correſpondent, for the contents of this month's Gleaner; which I have uſed with very trifling alteration.

About a century ago, to be learned and polite, were, in general, very different, and, indeed, almoſt inconſiſtent characters. The men of letters were ſo immerſed in books, and ſecluded themſelves ſo much from free and open converſation, that they contracted a ſtiffneſs and formality, nay, ſometimes a rudeneſs of behaviour, which made them extremely diſagree-

able, when they happened to appear in mixed aſſemblies. The people who compoſed the faſhionable world, were, on the other hand, equally deficient. For as they were not furniſhed with that preciſion of ideas, and ſtore of ſolid reflections, which muſt principally be derived from ſtudy, the ſubjects of their diſcourſe were inſipid, trifling, and ſuperficial. During this ſtate of things, the perſons engaged in active ſituations, and the perſons devoted to literature, were perpetually at variance; while the philoſopher reproached the gentleman for his ignorance, and the gentleman ridiculed the philoſopher for his pedantry. At length, however, both parties began to perceive their reſpective deficiencies; and to be ſenſible they muſt borrow from one another, in order to form a complete character. The ſcholar became convinced that his deep erudition was only a load of uſeleſs lumber, if not applied to the purpoſes of life; and rendered acceptable by a proper mixture of that delicacy and addreſs, which can only be acquired by an enlarged commerce with our fellow-creatures; and the man of the world found it neceſſary to draw aſſiſtance from learning, in order to be better qualified for appearing in public, with ability, dignity and ſucceſs. The reſult of this has been a happy union between them; and it is one characteriſtic of the laſt and preſent age, that thoſe who have the moſt exact and extenſive acquaintance with valuable books, have an equal acquaintance with mankind. Nay, there is ſome danger leſt the fear of pedantry ſhould be hurtful to ſound learning, and deſtroy the improvement that ought to ariſe from converſation.

So univerſal a ſenſe of the importance and neceſſity of knowing the world does now prevail, that there are few who do not pretend to it; and the phraſe ſo frequently occurs in the mouth of every pert young fellow, or young girl, that has ſeen the metropolis, and been at two or three public places, that it is almoſt become nauſeous. It may not, therefore, be improper to ſpecify in what it truly conſiſts. Now, a real knowledge of the world is ſuch an intimacy with the heart of man, as enables us to form a juſt opinion of human characters and actions, eſpecially the motives of their actions; and qualifies us to determine, with ſome degree of accuracy, in what manner perſons will behave in any aſſignable circumſtances. If this definition be attended to, and admitted, it will exclude vaſt numbers, who fancy themſelves to be well acquainted with men. Some arrogate the character, becauſe they are practiſed in the vices of the age. We have met with ſeveral young people, who, on this account have greatly triumphed over the virtuous: and have conſidered them as a ſimple race, who are quite ignorant of life. But what can be more plain, than that thoſe who have frequented all the haunts of iniquity, with which our metropolis abounds, and been guilty of the enormities there committed, may yet be totally unacquainted with mankind, in the valuable ſenſe of the word? The beſt that can be ſaid, is, that they know the worſt part of our ſpecies; while, perhaps, they are ſtrangers to human nature in general. The ſame may be aſſerted concerning ſuch as pretend to a knowledge of the world, becauſe they have acquired an artful management of their ſecular intereſts. The right conduct of our affairs, is, indeed, one of the capital advantages which ariſes from an extenſive view of the manners of men. But we here ſpeak of that low ſelfiſh cunning, on account of which conſiderable numbers compliment their own ſagacity. Thoſe, however, who think juſtly, will not believe that a capacity for driving a hard bargain, and overreaching our neighbours, is to be eſteemed a part of real wiſdom. Another ſort of perſons excluded by our definition, are they who imagine they underſtand human life, becauſe they frequently attend places of public reſort. The

doing this is undoubtedly one way of increaſing our acquaintance with mankind, but it will not of itſelf be ſufficient. Many who have been ſeen again and again at every public aſſembly, may know nothing of the world; partly for want of a reflective turn of mind, and partly becauſe in large companies, human nature is diſguiſed, and hath a uniform appearance. But there are others who make a more plauſible pretence to the character, and yet upon the whole do not deſerve it. The reaſon is, they deceive themſelves by an over ſubtilty and refinement. Theſe are a ſet of people, who, if we may be allowed the expreſſion, know the world too well to know it in reality. They have remarked, and juſtly remarked, that the larger part of men act in diſguiſe, and that the open avowed motives of their conduct, are very often far from being the true ones. They have taken notice, that thoſe actions which, in outward appearance, ſeemed to flow from generoſity and benevolence, were afterward found the effects of ſelf-love, or ſome deteſtable paſſion. Hence they have concluded, that every man is, in every other inſtance, governed by a regard to his own private purpoſes. Arguing upon this principle, they make it their buſineſs to ſearch out ſecret and intereſted cauſes for whatever they ſee performed by their fellow-creatures; and are led into a number of ſubtleties and refinements, which have no foundation; ſo that there are, perhaps, none who are more miſtaken in their ſentiments of human behaviour, than the over-wiſe, and the over-ſuſpicious. Upon the whole, then, a true knowledge of the world is equally diſtant from a ſuperficial view of things, and from the affectation of uncommon wiſdom.

That a real knowledge of the world will bring with it many benefits, is ſo univerſally allowed, that it may ſeem little neceſſary to enlarge upon them. It may not, however, be uſeleſs to point out ſome of the advantages flowing from it, as hence we may be led to a more diſtinct apprehenſion of its excellence and importance. And here we may remark, that an acquaintance with the world will be highly ſerviceable to the conduct of life in general. The perſon who hath ſtudied human nature, will be furniſhed with a number of obſervations, which will guard him againſt the ſnares laid for his detriment, prevent his being impoſed upon by every falſe pretence to honour, ſincerity, and religion: and regulate his behaviour, both with relation to his temporal concerns, and his morals. So numerous and ſo momentous are the inſtructions deducible from an extenſive ſurvey of the characters of men, that Homer, who excells all the ancient poets in the variety he draws, is upon this account preferred by Horace, to the beſt and graveſt authors among the ſtoics.

A knowledge of the world is, indeed, a great ſource of good ſenſe; that valuable quality, ſo much ſuperior to learning, and with which learning is not always attended. Good ſenſe conſiſts in a juſt eſtimation of common objects, and a right way of judging with reſpect to common appearances; but many profound ſcholars never paid a due regard to common objects and common appearances, and hence have fallen into a multitude of errors and miſtakes: whereas they who have read mankind as well as books, will learn a thouſand proprieties which it is impoſſible to mention, becauſe they are ſuggeſted by the circumſtances we are in, and can only ariſe from our preſent ſituation.

An acquaintance with life, will alſo be the principal method of obtaining thoſe little accompliſhments that are frequently experienced to contribute more to acceptance and ſucceſs, than the greateſt talents. Should we deſcend to every particular, it would be tedious. But it will direct us, for inſtance, in the general choice and arrangement of viſits; a circumſtance of no ſmall importance, in our intercourſe with our fellow-creatures. If

we underſtand mankind, we ſhall be ſenſible at what times, and in what way it is proper to pay our reſpects to the perſons with whom we are connected; ſhall perceive who ſhould be often and who ſparingly waited upon; and learn to adjuſt our behaviour, with a becoming ſpirit and addreſs, to places, occaſions, and circumſtances. We ſhall ſee when to be reſerved and when open, when grave, and when gay: and be taught this rule, that it is better to offend our friends, unleſs they be ſelect friends indeed, by being too frugal of our company, than to hazard the danger of diſguſting them, by a very frequent repetition of it. An acquaintance with life, will inſtruct us to maintain the due medium between a low ſubmiſſion, and a haughty inſolent deportment. With regard to our inferiors, it will teach us to be obliging without meanneſs, and to exert our authority without pride: and as to our ſuperiors, it will bid us preſerve an equal diſtance between a low ſervile adulation, and that pert freedom which carries in it the affectation of rivalling them in politeneſs. In ſhort, it will inform us that what we ſhould principally aim at, in our behaviour toward men of much higher rank than ourſelves, is, *propriety*.

An acquaintance with life, will likewiſe prevent us from delivering our ſentiments raſhly, in all companies, concerning every perſon and ſubject, that happens to be mentioned. *Loquatius* is much to blame in this reſpect. Without one grain of malignity in his heart, he utters his opinions ſo freely, and ſo readily tells whatever he knows and hears of the characters of his neighbours, that he brings himſelf into a thouſand ſcrapes, and is avoided by many of his acquaintance as a maker of miſchief; though he is far from intending the leaſt harm, and would abhor the thoughts of deſignedly injuring any creature upon earth.

Marriage is likewiſe a capital article, in which it will be of the utmoſt advantage to have a knowledge of the world. An intimacy with real life will give us ſome inſight into the fair ſex, keep us from being captivated with the firſt young girl that comes in our way; and inſtruct us, that every ſprightly female is not an angel. It will alſo direct a wiſe man not to aim too high; not to wiſh an union with a woman who is far above him in education, rank, and circumſtances; unleſs he is willing to ſacrifice youth, beauty, and agreeable qualities in the object of his choice; unleſs he is willing to endure that ſlavery of the *dotata conjux*, the dowried dame, which has been celebrated by Horace ſo many centuries ago.

Moreover, an acquaintance with mankind will tend, in general, to enlarge the ſoul. An ignorant mind wonders, and ſtartles at every thing that is contrary to its own notions, cuſtoms and manners: but the perſon who has been converſant in the different walks of life, will judge more impartially of the objects which fall under his notice. He will perceive that wiſdom and virtue are not confined to a ſingle nation, or a ſingle ſect of religion; and hence will be free both from local prejudices and from bigotry, which are the ſure marks of narrow views and conceptions, with regard to human nature.

Were we to conſider the knowledge of the world in its influence on particular ſtations and profeſſions, we ſhould find it extremely beneficial. What would politicians, and ſuch as are in public employments, do without it? Even the clergy, who may be ſuppoſed principally to draw their inſtructions from ſcripture, and from books of divinity, will derive much advantage to their compoſitions from the ſurvey and ſtudy of men and manners. Without this, a preacher may ſay many things that would be improper and impertinent. If he doth not know the virtues and vices, the peculiar temptations and dangers of the age, he will be ignorant what ſubjects to chooſe, and in what way to addreſs

different characters; and by an injudicious treatment of his auditory, may do harm, rather than good.

A knowledge of the world, alſo, is connected with ſeveral parts of ſcience, taſte, and literature. Moral philoſophy, that grandeſt object of our enquiries, can be truly underſtood by no other method, than by ſearching into the conſtitution and affections of the ſoul, and making facts and obſervations, drawn from common life, the foundation of our reaſonings. The very exiſtence of the *belles lettres*, depends on an acquaintance with the nature and frame of man. What are the ſublimer kinds of poetry full of, but human characters and paſſions? Where would have been the tragic and epic poems, if the authors had not been read in the movements of the mind, and well ſkilled in deſcribing them? Where would have been the ſatiric and comic muſe, whoſe whole excellence conſiſts in diſplaying the follies of the world, and in giving an exact picture of life? Had Shakſpeare, Addiſon, Steele, Fielding, and others, been immerged in colleges all their days, not the learning of the Bodleian library would have enabled them to furniſh the beautiful productions that have come from their pens. The ſame may be aſſerted concerning painting, and the reſt of the polite arts.

An enlarged intercourſe with mankind is the grand means of acquiring a knowledge of the world, yet there are one or two ſecondary ways of aſſiſting our progreſs in this attainment, which have their value, and ought not to be neglected. We may, in a certain degree, be enabled to penetrate into the paſſions and characters of thoſe we converſe with, by maintaining a cloſe intimacy with our own hearts. As we are each of us endowed with the ſame principles and feelings, the perſon who is diligent to trace the windings of his own ſoul, and the movements of his own affections, will be able, from analogy, to form, in many caſes, a judgment of what paſſes in the breaſts of his fellow-creatures. This judgment, however, muſt be adopted with caution: for were we abſolutely to meaſure others by ourſelves, we ſhould frequently be deceived. Too exact an adherence to this rule, is the actual cauſe of miſtakes. People of open and benevolent diſpoſitions are diſpoſed to think more favourably of mankind than they deſerve; while the dark deſigning villain concludes that every one he deals with is as intereſted, and as baſe as himſelf.

Another ſecondary method of obtaining a knowledge of the world is, the converſing with ſuch books as paint life and manners in a natural and ſtriking point of view. Various productions of this kind have, of late years, been publiſhed among us, and they may, in ſeveral reſpects, be read with advantage; but we ought not entirely to depend upon them. A certain degree of acquaintance with mankind is neceſſary, before we can peruſe them with profit, or determine concerning their real excellence and uſe: for otherwiſe we may be deceived by the repreſentation of characters, which either have no foundation in nature, or elſe are too much heightened. Nevertheleſs, the writings we are ſpeaking of, may aſſiſt us to form ſome juſt notions of things, before we enter upon the ſtage of action. They may impreſs on our minds, with greater ſtrength and accuracy, the ideas we already had, and furniſh us with a number of valuable directions and maxims.

Theſe benefits more immediately flow from hiſtory, which has very properly been called, by Cicero, the miſtreſs of life. To hiſtory, therefore, we ſhould principally have recourſe, for accurate and enlarged views of our fellow-creatures, ſo far as books will be enabled to give them: and if we are careful to improve all the opportunities we enjoy, we may ſoon gain ſuch an acquaintance with the world, as is ſufficient to anſwer the purpoſes of duty and happineſs: for it may be laid down as a certain

truth, that where the ſituation of any perſon cannot poſſibly admit of his knowing much of mankind, there too his ſituation did not require it, and he may, without it, diſcharge the part allotted to him, with prudence, decency and ſucceſs.

K.

SHAKSPEARE.

THE following advertiſement, written by the late George Steevens, eſq. was prefixed in manuſcript to his edition of Shakſpeare, ornamented and enriched with numerous portraits, &c. which he bequeathed to lord Spencer, and which was valued, when the legacy-duty came to be paid, at 400l. This advertiſement is now tranſcribed by permiſſion of his lordſhip.

'THE ſubſequent engravings are ſcattered over the edition of Shakſpeare 1793, in compliance with the modern cuſtom of decorating a ſingle work at the expence of many others. So prevalent, indeed, is this faſhion, that I ſhall not hazard the charge of raſhneſs when I aſſert, that, in the courſe of a few years, no ancient Engliſh portraits will be met with in the books they originally belonged to, unleſs where they have ſkulked in hereditary libraries, and eſcaped the conſequences of public ſales. Their price alſo will continue to riſe; for ſuch as are annexed to volumes which, like theſe, are bound up, may be conſidered as in a ſtate of laſting confinement; or, if ſet at liberty, would only exchange one priſon for another; as ſome gentlemen collect for Clarendon, Burnet, Rapin, and county hiſtories, while others wiſh to poſſeſs a ſeries of their relations, or of our poets, painters, ſtateſmen, eccleſiaſtics, &c.

Ille ſenum vultus, juvenum legit ille figuras;
Hinc agitant totis fraterna cadavera ſomnis;
Pectore in hoc pater eſt, *omnes* in Cæſare manes:

for thoſe who ſeek out *all* the heads enumerated by our perpetual dictator who wrote the "Biographical Hiſtory of England," may be ſtyled univerſal collectors, as perſons in every walk of life are comprehended in his catalogue. If the Rev. James Granger did not ſuggeſt the preſent ſcheme of mutilating title-pages, he may be ſaid to have rendered it permanent and ſyſtematical, and to have ſent us in queſt of articles which, but for his information, we ſhould not have learned to want, or have known where to look for. The following pages exhibit engravings of very diſcordant value; from ſuch (as) are known to have been ſold at five or ten guineas each, down to thoſe for which the poſſeſſors were aſhamed to aſk even the moſt trivial ſum. This aſſertion may be verified in the articles—William Alabaſter and lord Stirling, Mungo Campbell and George Hardinge.

'The preſent collection, though imperfect, may be completed by the luck or induſtry of its future owner. The volumes that contain theſe plates, though bound, have their edges almoſt uncut, and may therefore be taken to pieces and recompacted without much diminution of their margins. In ſeveral places, indeed, vacant leaves are inſerted for the admiſſion of portraits, known to have been engraved; but no forecaſt could adjuſt receptacles for thoſe which may be hereafter publiſhed from originals, as yet undiſcovered by the moſt diligent ſearch among the numerous diſciples of Ames, Walpole, Granger, and Bromley.

'Some portraits, indeed, which are both poorly executed, and of doubtful authority, are here inſerted. But, alas! were collectors too faſtidious and ſelect in their admiſſions, the beſt and moſt ample aſſemblages of this kind would ſhrink within a very ſmall compaſs. I muſt not conclude without obſerving, that, aſſiduous as I have been in ſecuring every appropriate

article that could be purchaſed, I am indebted for many of the moſt valuable to the kindneſs of my friends, among whom the late Dr. Lort, Dr. Farmer, ſir William Muſgrave, Mr. Stour, and Mr. Reed, are entitled to my particular acknowledgments.

G. STEEVENS.

'From the following ſeries of plates, all ideal and theatrical repreſentations were meant to be excluded. The cuts, however, to Rowe's edition of Shakſpeare are here introduced, as they are the firſt efforts of the pencil toward the ornament of our author, and ſerve at leaſt to aſcertain the mode in which his characters were dreſſed about the year 1709; for, by ſuch of his plays as were then on the ſtage, it is clear that the draughtſman conducted his deſigns for all the reſt. A ſingle departure, perhaps from this practice may be obſerved; as the frontiſpiece to the third ſcene of the fifth act of Coriolanus is unſuitable to that drama, being a mere copy of ſome engraving, from the well-known picture of Nicholas Pouſſin, on the ſame ſubject differently treated. See vol. XII, page 214.

'Thoſe plates were both deſigned and executed by Edward Kirkall, though his name is not ſubjoined to them. He alſo engraved ſimilar decorations for the editions of Beaumont and Fletcher, in 1711. He appears to have been conſtantly employed by the Tonſons, and to have entertained no higher ideas of Macbeth and Hamlet, than he had caught from their uſual repreſentatives, meſſrs. Mills and Wilks. The original of her Daniſh majeſty will be found in any common portrait of queen Anne.

'The next ſuite of ornaments Shakſpeare received, are in the edition by Mr. Pope, in ten volumes duodecimo, 1728. Lewis du Guernier executed about half the plates, the others are merely reduced copies by Fourdrinier, from the preceding deſigns of Kirkall.

'The abſurdity of employing a Frenchman, to decorate plays written in a language which he did not well underſtand, is ſufficiently evident from two of Du Guernier's deſigns. In his frontiſpiece to the Merry Wives of Windſor, Falſtaff is a moderate ſized young man, in a coat, waiſtcoat, and a flowing peruke; and one of the phantoms in Macbeth, inſtead of exhibiting a mirror, holds a common wine-glaſs in his hand.

'In a ſupplement compoſing an eighteenth volume will be found ſuch portraits, &c. as no room had been left for when the preceding books were delivered to the binder.

G. S.'

DEMOCRATIC INJUSTICE.

[An Incident from Planta's 'Hiſtory of the Helvetic Confederacy.']

A TRAGICAL incident, which happened at Zuric, while it afforded a memorable inſtance of the inſtability of human affairs, might alſo have ſerved as an early caution againſt the pernicious tendency of the foreign connections, which now began to prevail, and the fatal conſequences of the people interfering in the adminiſtration of juſtice. John Waldman, whom we have ſeen at the head of the confederate army at Morat, was a native of a ſmall village near Zug, and came in his early youth to Zuric, where, being wholly deſtitute, he engaged to learn the trade of a tanner. The vigour of his mind, as well as the comelineſs of his perſon, however, ſoon raiſed him from this lowly condition, and enabled him to diſtinguiſh himſelf in the military career, in the ſervices both of his country, and of foreign princes. He was knighted at the battle of Morat, and ſince that had riſen gradually at Zuric, even to the high ſtation of burgomaſter. His influence throughout the confederacy became ſo great, that all foreign kings, princes, and ſtates, who had any object to purſue with the cantons,

had recourſe to him; and according to the practice now prevalent, ſecured his intereſt, and that of his ſubordinate agents, by ample penſions and gratuities. This unexpected riſe, and the ſupport he experienced from abroad, ſoon produced the effects which ſo uncommon an aggrandiſement ſeldom fails to operate; great arrogance and great pertinacity, and a haughty deportment in the aſpiring magiſtrate; and much envy and malevolence on the part of the ancient families, who bore with impatience the ſupremacy of one whom they had formerly ſeen in one of the loweſt ſtations.

Pretences were not long wanting for giving a full ſcope to the adverſe paſſions, which the unfortunate burgomaſter had excited. The ſenate of Zuric, alarmed at the progreſs luxury had evidently made, ſince the influx of riches brought from the Burgundian war, had iſſued various ſumptuary decrees, which the more diſtinguiſhed citizens, and eſpecially their wives and daughters, the clergy, whoſe morals had yielded to the contagion of the times, and the profligate of all claſſes, thought oppreſſive and derogatory. To theſe were ſoon after added other regulations concerning the monopoly of ſalt, the right of hewing timber, and even a prohibition to keep dogs in the farms, becauſe they had in ſome inſtances injured the vineyards and moleſted the game; all which alarmed the lower claſſes, and the latter, particularly the peaſantry, excited them againſt the burgomaſter, to whom all theſe innovations were gratuitouſly inſcribed. The peaſants were the firſt who openly reſiſted the execution of the decrees; and when, through the interpoſition of ſome of the moſt diſcreet among the magiſtrates, they were nearly pacified, Waldman incautiouſly revived their indignation, by declaring to them that, being all vaſſals, or rather predial ſlaves, purchaſed by the city, they had no right to arraign the orders of the magiſtrates, or any ways to impede their execution. Secure in the prevalency and firmneſs of his power, he repaired with ſome friends to Baden, to purſue the amuſements of that gay city; and there, in his unguarded moments, held a language reſpecting the affairs of his canton, which even thoſe beſt inclined in his favour knew not how to juſtify. His numerous enemies at Zuric did not fail to avail themſelves of his abſence, and of theſe indiſcretions, to excite an odium againſt him, which all ranks were now well diſpoſed to admit; and their ſucceſs was ſuch, that when Waldman, being appriſed of the clamours raiſed againſt him, returned privately into the city, he found a defection which he was ill prepared to encounter. A general inſurrection ſoon broke out among both the citizens and peaſants, which neither the burgomaſters, nor ſeveral deputies from the confederated ſtates, who had been ſent on the occaſion, knew how to allay.

On the firſt of April, the tribes aſſembled, and Waldman repaired to each of them ſeparately, and attempted to perſuade them of his innocence, and of the neceſſity of reſtraining the unruly ſpirit of the peaſantry. His enemies, perceiving that he was gaining ground, ſuddenly called together the ſenate, which his office obliged him to attend. Here the deliberations were ſoon interrupted by a riotous multitude, who demanded the perſons of the burgomaſter and ſome of his adherents. Theſe being delivered to them, the multitude proceeded to depoſe the ſenate, and to appoint a new magiſtracy, which, from its callous ſeverity, was called the *Horny Senate*. Before this tribunal, Waldman was charged with various plots againſt the ſtate, and, in particular, with a deſign to ſurrender the city to the emperor; and though no proof could be adduced of theſe accuſations; yet ſo much were the people's minds prepoſſeſſed againſt him, that orders were given to extort a confeſſion by the torments of the rack. Theſe he firmly

The Ruff.

bore during three days, without acknowledging any guilt; but while his judges were deliberating concerning the ſentence, a meſſenger came haſtily, and reported that the emperor had croſſed the Rhine, and was in full march toward the city. Waldman's doom was now pronounced: he was led out of the town, and publicly beheaded. He purpoſed to declare his innocence on the ſcaffold, but was prevented by the perſuaſion of his confeſſor, who it was ſince ſuſpected had been gained over by his enemies. No ſooner had his head been ſtruck off, but the magiſtrate who attended the execution declared to the aſſembled multitude, that they need be under no apprehenſion concerning the Imperial forces, there being no truth in the report of an invaſion. Many ſaw now through the malicious artifices, which had impelled this diſtinguiſhed character to his final deſtruction; and ſeveral of his enemies ſoon after expiated their treachery by capital puniſhments.

DESCRIPTION OF THE RUFF.

With an engraving of that Bird, finely coloured after Nature.

THE Ruff, or Tringa Pugnax, is a ſpecies of the Tringa Sandpiper, a genus of birds belonging to the order of *grallæ*. The generic character is; the bill ſomewhat tapering, and of the length of the head; the noſtrils ſmall; the toes are four in number, and divided, the hind toe being frequently raiſed from the ground. According to Dr. Latham, there are forty-five ſpecies, of which eighteen are Britiſh. Of theſe laſt we have ſelected for the preſent article the Tringa Pugnax, or Ruff.

The length of the male Ruff is twelve inches, of the female, ten inches; the bill of the male is yellow in ſome, in others black, or dark brown; the face is covered with yellow pear-ſhaped pimples; the back part of the head and neck are furniſhed with long feathers, which expand in a very ſingular manner on each ſide of the neck, and impend looſely over the breaſt, like the ruff anciently worn in this country. A portion or tuft of thoſe feathers project alſo juſt beyond each eye, and have the appearance of long ears.

That ingenious naturaliſt, Mr. Donovan, obſerves that, as the moſt remarkable peculiarity of thoſe birds is, that no two ſpecimens are ever found to agree in the colour of the plumage, it is impoſſible to give any deſcription, except of its form, that may aſſiſt the unſkilful ornithologiſt to determine the ſpecies, when it has attained the ruff; it cannot, however, be miſtaken, as no bird of this country reſembles it in the ſmalleſt degree. The ground colour is generally brown, but it varies in different birds to every hue between the lighteſt tint that can deſerve that name, and the deepeſt chocolate colour; ſometimes we find the ruff of a fine tender buff colour, without the ſlighteſt appearance of ſpots, except on the breaſt and back, which may be of a deep black, intermingled with a few white feathers, and gloſſed with ſhining purple; others we find that have ruffs of a deep brown, barred with black; ſome with white ruffs, ſpotted with brown, or brown ſpotted with white; and indeed with every variation that it is poſſible to deſcribe.

The females, which are called Reeves, Pennant aſſerts, never change their colours, which he ſays are pale brown; the back ſpotted with black, ſlightly edged with white; the tail brown; the middle feathers ſpotted with black; the breaſt and belly white; the legs of a pale dull yellow: but Mr. Donovan informs us that he has two ſpecimens that do not well agree with his deſcription, or correſpond with each other; and in the Leverian muſeum, a variety of that ſex is preſerved that is wholly white, ex-

cept the wings, on which the uſual marking are viſible in a very pale colour.

The female has no ruff, and the male does not attain that appendage until the ſecond ſeaſon; at the time of incubation the plumage of the male is in full perfection, and the pimples break out on his face; but after that time they ſhrink beneath the ſkin, the long feathers of the ruff fall off, and he again aſſumes the plain appearance of the female.

Theſe birds inhabit the north of Europe in ſummer, as far as Iceland, as well as the northern marſhes of Ruſſia and Siberia. In this country they are found in Lincolnſhire, in the iſle of Ely, and in the Eaſt-riding of Yorkſhire: they arrive at thoſe places early in the ſpring, and diſappear about Michaelmas. The Reeve lays four eggs in a tuft of graſs the beginning of May; they are white, marked with large ruſty ſpots.

Soon after their arrival, the males begin to *bill*; that is, to collect on ſome dry bank near a ſplaſh of water, in expectation of the females. Each male keeps poſſeſſion of a ſmall piece of ground, round which it runs ſo often as to form a bare circular path; the inſtant a female alights among them, the males are in motion; a general battle enſues, and the fowlers, who have been waiting for the advantage of ſuch an event, catch them in their nets in great numbers. They viſit a place called Martinmere, in Lancaſhire, the latter end of March, or beginning of April, but do not continue there above three weeks.

In the fens, each male remains within his circle, and defends himſelf againſt every invader with much reſolution: the leaſt infringement on his poſſeſſion by another male is reſented with the greateſt violence; and if any further attack is made, a battle is the conſequence: in fighting they have the ſame action as a cock, ſpread their ruffs, and place their bills to the ground.

Dr. Latham obſerves, that it is uſual to fat theſe birds for table, by means of bread and milk mixed with hempſeed, and ſometimes boiled wheat; to theſe by many, ſugar is added; which laſt in a fortnight's time will cauſe them to be one lump of fat, when they will fetch from two ſhillings to half a crown each.

When a fowler diſcovers one of thoſe *bills* deſcribed above, he places his net over night, which is of the ſame kind as thoſe called *clap* or *day nets*; only it is generally ſingle, and is about fourteen yards long, and four broad. The fowler reſorts to his ſtand at day-break, at the diſtance of one, two, three, or four hundred yards from the nets, according to the time of the ſeaſon; for the later it is the ſhyer the birds grow. He then makes his firſt pull, taking ſuch birds as he finds within reach; after that he places his ſtuffed birds or *ſtales*, to entice thoſe that are continually traverſing the fen. When the ſtales are ſet, ſeldom more than two or three are taken at a time. A fowler will take forty or fifty dozen in a ſeaſon. It ought, perhaps, to be added, that they are dreſſed, like the woodcock, with their inteſtines; and when killed at the critical time, ſay the epicures, are the moſt delicious of all morſels. Undoubtedly it was in this character that we find them in the bill of fare of the grand dinner, of which his majeſty partook at Guildhall, after his coronation.

HISTORICAL REMARKS ON FEASTING.

IT is very evident from hiſtory, that feaſting was very early known to the ancient nations, and the records of more modern times have not thought it unworthy to hand down many details on this ſubject, which ſhow the variations it has undergone. The Greeks and Romans have left us many documents, whereby we may judge of the nature of their feaſts, but it will

be found that they differ in many reſpects from thoſe of the moderns. We hope we ſhall not be thought too full of national *pride*, if we give it as our opinion, that probably no modern nation has brought feaſting to a greater perfection than our own. This, we think, will appear obvious, when we come to treat of Engliſh feaſting; but it is previouſly neceſſary to take ſome notice of what progreſs the ancients appear to have made, and which will furniſh the ſubject of the preſent article.

As food is neceſſary to our exiſtence, it makes a bond of aſſociation among mankind. People at a feaſt, ſays one of the ancients, ſeem to form but one body, one ſoul. All nations, whether ſavage or civilized, have regarded the pleaſures of the table as the occaſion of the moſt agreeable ſociety. This ſpecies of enjoyment (abſtracting from its ſuſceptibility of abuſe) makes but one family of all that it brings together. It levels the diſtinctions introduced by policy or prejudice, and diſpoſes men to regard one another as brethren. It is here that people feel the equality eſtabliſhed by nature; here they forget the evils of life; they extinguiſh their hatred, and make their enmities ceaſe. For this reaſon Ariſtotle conſiders as a breach of the ſocial principle, that cuſtom of the Egyptians of eating apart, and praiſes the convivial repaſts eſtabliſhed by Minos and Lycurgus.

The Perſians generally deliberated on buſineſs at table, but never put their determinations into execution, except in the morning before having eaten. Whoever has been at a modern feaſt, will ſee the propriety of this.—When the Germans, ſays Tacitus, wanted to reconcile enemies, to make alliances, to name chiefs, or to treat of war and peace; it was during the repaſt that they took counſel; a time in which the mind is moſt open to the impreſſions of ſimple truths, or moſt eaſily animated to great attempts. Theſe artleſs people during the conviviality of the feaſt ſpoke without diſguiſe. Next day, they weighed the counſels of the former evening: they deliberated at a time when they were not diſpoſed to feign, and took their reſolution when they were leaſt liable to be deceived.

People of rank among the Rhodians, by a fundamental law of the ſtate, were obliged to dine daily with thoſe who had the management of affairs, in order to deliberate with them, concerning ſuch things as were neceſſary or uſeful for the country: and on this account the principal miniſters of the kingdom, were obliged to keep open table for all who could be of uſe to the ſtate.

Among the Romans, the place where they ſupped was generally the veſtibule, that a more retired part of the houſe might not encourage licentiouſneſs and diſorder. There were ſeveral laws that reſtricted their meals to theſe veſtibules. When luxury reigned in Rome, they had ſuperb halls for theſe entertainments. Lucullus had many, each of which bore the name of ſome deity; and this name was a mark, which indicated to the ſervants the expence of the entertainment. The expence of a ſupper in Lucullus' hall of Apollo, amounted to 50,000 drachmas, about 1500l, of our money. The hall in which Nero feaſted, by the circular motion of its walls and ceilings, imitated the revolutions of the heavens, and repreſented the different ſeaſons of the year, changing at every courſe, and ſhowering down flowers and perfumes on the gueſts. The Romans did not, as we do, uſe but one table at their feaſts; they generally had two; the firſt was for the ſervices of animal food, which was afterward removed, and another introduced with fruits; at this laſt they ſung, and poured out their libations. The Greeks and eaſtern nations had the ſame cuſtom, and even the Jews at their ſolemn feaſts and at ſacrifices. The Romans, in the time of Nero, had tables made of citron wood brought from Mauri-

tania: they were varniſhed with purple and gold, and were raiſed on feet of carved ivory. It is ſaid they were more precious than gold. Dion Caſſius affirms, that Seneca had 500 of theſe, which he made uſe of one after another; and Tertullian tells us that Cicero had but one. The Romans choſe the king of the feaſt by a throw of the dice.

We learn from Herodotus, that the ancients had neither cups nor bowls, but that they drank out of little horns tipt with ſilver or gold.

Under the reign of Charles v of France, the cuſtom of placing the lights upon the table was not yet introduced. A number of domeſtics held the candles in their hands during the whole time of the repaſt.

The Greeks and Romans kept a domeſtic for the purpoſe of reading during their meals and feaſts. Sometimes the chief of the family himſelf performed the office of reader; and hiſtory informs us, that the emperor Severus often read while his family ate. The time of reading was generally at ſupper; and gueſts were invited to a reading as they are now-a-days to play cards. It is almoſt needleſs to add, that no remains of theſe reading-feaſts are to be found in modern times.—The Greeks, in their flouriſhing ages, did not profane, according to their own expreſſion, the *holineſs* of the table: but rather adorned it with ingenious and elegant converſation: they propoſed moral topics, of which Plutarch has preſerved a collection.

Ancient philoſophers remark, that heroes rarely aſſembled convivially without bringing affairs of conſequence into diſcourſe, or deliberating upon thoſe that regarded either preſent events or future contingencies.—The Scythians, while at meat, uſed to make the ſtrings of their bows reſound, leſt their warlike virtues might be enfeebled or loſt in this ſeaſon of pleaſure.

When Rome was corrupted with luxury, ſingers, dancers, muſicians, ſtage-players, and people that told pleaſant tales, were brought into the hall to amuſe the gueſts. Plutarch informs us, that Ceſar, after his triumphs, treated the Roman people at twenty-two thouſands tables; and by calculation it would ſeem that there were at theſe tables upward of two hundred thouſand people.—At the end of the feaſt, the Romans drank out of a large cup as often as there were letters in the name of their miſtreſſes.

Feaſting ſeems to have been the chief delight of the Germans, Gauls, Britons, and all the other Celtic nations; in which they indulged themſelves to the utmoſt, as often as they had an opportunity. 'Among theſe nations,' ſays an author who had carefully ſtudied their manners, 'there is no public aſſembly, either for civil or religious purpoſes, duly held; no birth-days, marriages or funerals, properly celebrated; no treaty of peace or alliance rightly cemented, without a great feaſt.' It was by frequent entertainments of this kind that the great men, or chieftains, gained the affections and rewarded the ſervices of their followers; and thoſe who made the greateſt feaſts were ſure to be moſt popular, and to have had the greateſt retinue. Theſe feaſts (in which plenty was more regarded than elegance) laſted commonly ſeveral days, and the gueſts ſeldom retired until they had conſumed all the proviſions and exhauſted all the liquors. Athenæus deſcribes an entertainment that was given by Arcamnes, a very wealthy prince in Gaul, which continued a whole year without interruption, and at which all the people of Gaul and even all ſtrangers who paſſed through that country, were made welcome. At theſe feaſts they ſometimes conſulted about the moſt important affairs of ſtate, and formed reſolutions relating to peace and war; imagining that men ſpoke their real ſentiments with the greateſt freedom, and were apt to form the boldeſt deſigns, when their ſpirits were exhilarated with the

pleaſures of the table. The converſations at theſe entertainments very frequently turned on the great exploits, which the gueſts themſelves or their anceſtors had performed in war; which ſometimes occaſioned quarrels and even bloodſhed.

As to the drink uſed at thoſe feaſts, particularly in Britain, it ſeem probable, that before the introduction of agriculture into the iſland, mead or honey diluted with water was the only ſtrong liquor known to its inhabitants, as it was to many other ancient nations in the ſame circumſtances. This continued to be a favourite beverage among the ancient Britons and their poſterity, long after they had become acquainted with other liquors. The mead-maker was the eleventh perſon in dignity, in the courts of the ancient princes of Wales, and took place of the phyſician. The following ancient law of that principality ſhows how much this liquor was eſteemed by the Britiſh princes. 'There are three things in the court, which muſt be communicated to the king before they are made known to any other perſon: 1. Every ſentence of the judge. 2. Every new ſong; and 3. Every caſk of mead.' This is perhaps the liquor which is called by Oſſian the joy and ſtrength of ſhells, with which his heroes were ſo much delighted.—After the introduction of agriculture, ale or beer became the moſt general drink of all the Britiſh nations who practiſed that art, as it had long been of all the Celtic people on the continent. If the Phœnicians or Greeks imported any wine into Britain, it was only in very ſmall quantities; that moſt generous liquor being very little known in this iſland, before it was conquered by the Romans. The drinking veſſels of the Gauls, Britons, and other Celtic nations were, for the moſt part, made of the horns of oxen and other animals; but thoſe of the Caledonians conſiſted of large ſhells, which are ſtill uſed by ſome of their poſterity in the highlands of Scotland.

The diſhes in which the meat was ſerved up were either of wood or earthen ware, or a kind of baſkets made of oſiers. Theſe laſt were moſt uſed by the Britons, as they very much excelled in the art of making them both for their own uſe and for exportation. The gueſts ſat in a circle upon the ground, with a little hay, graſs, or the ſkin of ſome animal under them. A low table or ſtool was ſet before each perſon, with the portion of meat allotted to him upon it. In this diſtribution, they never neglected to ſet the largeſt and beſt pieces before thoſe who were moſt diſtinguiſhed for their rank, their exploits, or their riches. Every gueſt took the meat ſet before him in his hands, and tearing it with his teeth, fed upon it in the beſt manner he could. If any one found difficulty in ſeparating any part of his meat with his hands and teeth, he made uſe of a large knife, that lay in a particular place for the benefit of the whole company. Servants, or young boys and girls, the children of the family, ſtood behind the gueſts ready to help them to drink, or any thing they wanted.

As the ancient Britons greatly excelled and very much delighted in muſic, all their feaſts were accompanied with the joys of ſong, and the muſic of harps. In the words of Oſſian, 'whenever the feaſt of ſhells is prepared, the ſongs of bards ariſe. The voice of ſprightly mirth is heard. The trembling harps of joy are ſtrung. They ſing the battles of heroes, or the heaving breaſts of love.' Some of the poems of that illuſtrious Britiſh bard, appear to have been compoſed in order to be ſung by the hundred bards of Fingal at the feaſt of Selma. Many of the ſongs of the bards, which were ſung and played at the feaſts of the ancient Britons, were of a grave and ſolemn ſtrain, celebrating the brave actions of the gueſts, or of the heroes of other times; but theſe were ſometimes intermixed with more ſprightly and cheerful airs, to which the youth of both ſexes danced, for the entertainment of the company.

Such is a ſketch of the ſlender information we have reſpecting the feaſts

of ancient times. They are little intereſting as they differ ſo materially from the genius and ſpirit of modern feaſting. The fables of Oſſian are of doubtful authority, and if the Greeks, Romans, and other nations, mixed conſultaion upon public affairs with their entertainments, it is obvious they differed in that reſpect at leaſt from the motive and purpoſe of a modern feaſt, which forbids all attention to any buſineſs but what is immediately before the gueſts, although there are certain feaſts which are contrived ſo as indirectly to promote the intereſt of public inſtitutions. But all this will be explained when we come to treat of modern feaſting, which will be found to have been brought to greater perfection in our own country than in any other of which we have a regular account.

GEOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

AS you now and then give your readers ſuch geographical deſcriptions of places of importance, as are not to be found in books, I beg leave to tranſmit to you a ſketch of that kind, which I doubt not you will deem worthy of attention. It is no leſs than *A Deſcription of the Kingdom of Poetry.* It is the production of one, who had very ſucceſsfully travelled over a conſiderable part of it.

The kingdom of Poetry is large and well peopled; it borders on one ſide on that of Painting, and on the other on that of Muſic. It is divided into high and low, like ſeveral other countries. High Poetry is inhabited by a ſort of four-looking melancholy people, who ſpeak a language which is to the other provinces as Welch to the Engliſh. The tops of all the trees in High Poetry ſhoot into the clouds. Their horſes out-run the wind. The men are generally heroes by profeſſion, and will cleave a giant armed *cap-a-pee* with one ſtroke. As to the women, if they have ever ſo little beauty, there is no compariſon between them and the ſun. The metropolis of this province is called Epic Poem, and is built on a ſandy and ungrateful ſoil, which hardly any take the pains to cultivate. The city is ſeveral days march, and of a tedious dimenſion. The people in it, and indeed generally through the whole kingdom, have but little regard to truth, and are better pleaſed with feigned ſtories. You can never come out of Epic Poem, without meeting fights and murders; but when you paſs through Romance, which is its ſuburbs, and bigger than that town, you are ſure to meet at the end of it people full of joy, and preparing for their marriage; they are there very paſſionate lovers, great travellers, and tellers of ſtories, and the moſt beautiful and accompliſhed people in the world.

The mountains of Tragedy make up the beſt part of High Poetry, and are very high and craggy, with ſome very dangerous precipices; and this cauſes many to build in the vallies, which now-a-days is more advantageous. For thoſe that live higher are not encouraged as they think they ought: few people, conſidering the pains there is in bringing materials ſo high, and the air of thoſe mountains is too ſharp for ſuch as are uſed to the groſs and common air of the vallies. On thoſe mountains are yet ſeen the beautiful ruins and remains of ſome ancient cities, and from time to time ſome of their materials are brought down to build and adorn new cities, moſt of which are not according to the rules of Roman or Greek architecture, but have much of the Gothic in them. They are very bloody minded in this place, and their women above all, who are ſo well pleaſed with theſe public murders, that they generally laugh, and clap their hands, when ſome poor wretch is executed, or kills himſelf.

Pindaric Ode, is a town ſeated on a very high ground, and yields a beautiful proſpect; even irregularity, which in other things is a fault, adds to its perfection The inhabitants ſeem to live with all manner of *licence*; their ſpeech ſeems uneven and careleſs to thoſe that do not thoroughly underſtand it, although thoſe that do (who indeed are but very few) find it more ſmooth and even, than thoſe tongues that have more of meaſure, and leſs of liberty in them. There are many apes and parrots about the town, the firſt ſtriving to imitate the portly gait of the inhabitants, ſtrut ridiculouſly on tip-toe; the others have got ſome of their high words by heart, and although they utter them at random, yet ſtrangers miſtake their voice for that of men.

In the ſame province is a fine, gaudy, inchanted caſtle, called Opera. It was firſt contrived by an Italian magician; from Italy, it went into France, and is now removed to England, after its tedious travels, like the houſe at Loretto. Some conjurers bring there by their art, the ſun, moon and ſtars from their orbits, heaven and hell, land and ſea, and all the heathen gods attend their motions, and ſing and dance very lovingly. Thoſe, indeed, who live there, are everlaſting ſingers, whether in joy or ſorrow, and often, like ſwans, ſing beſt at their death. They have reformed this tireſome way lately, and intermixing the language of tragedy, with their agreeable muſic and ſcenery, are very entertaining.

Low Poetry is much like the Low Countries, very full of bogs and marſhes. Burleſque is its capital city, and is ſituate in a very muddy moraſs. Princes ſpeak there like men of nothing, and all its inhabitants are by birth Jack-puddings. Near it is an open town, called Farce, with much the ſame ſituation and inhabitants, only they are yet more vulgar, and will keep you an hour or two about an idle ſtory, that has not the leaſt probability in it.

Comedy is a city much better ſituate, and very pleaſant, although its being in the neighbourhood of Farce, is not greatly to its advantage. There are in Comedy very good painters, and the city is full of looking-glaſſes, which are of great uſe to thoſe whoſe dreſs or actions are out of order: they love to laugh other people from their faults, though they are not without ſome themſelves, as when they give too pleaſing images of vice in their pictures; and if they examined well their own faces in the mirrors, they would often find them dirty. Waving that, in which it is hoped they may mend, there are few better moraliſts of the kind in the world. The place is divided into *five parts*, and as you proceed from one to the other, you always have *muſic*, and ſometimes a *dance*. At your entrance is a caſtle, called Prologue, which like a conſtable's watch, holds a parley with you before you are admitted into the town. They are very ſevere in this place, if they ſuſpect you to be Critics, a nation that is generally at war with Poetry. Sometimes they are more humble, beg your benevolence and kind indulgence, and fare the better for it. At the fartheſt end of the town is another fort, called Epilogue, where they are generally more civil, and ſeldom beg more than a good word. There is a town adjoining to Comedy, called Tragicomedy; part of it lies on a ſmall hill, and is moſtly inhabited by perſons of the firſt rank, although nothing near ſo populous as Comedy, which is ſo full of people of all humours, ſorts, and ſizes, that many crowd into Tragicomedy, but *ancient* people do not like the mixture.

Between High and Low Poetry are the Solitudes of Good Senſe, which are very extenſive. There is no town or city in the whole country, but only here and there a few huts, though it is the beſt and moſt pleaſant part of all the kingdom, and enjoys whatever heart can wiſh. But its avenues are ſo rugged, the ways ſo narrow and difficult, and it is ſo hard to procure guides to conduct you thither, that it is no wonder ſo few will undertake

the journey. Beſides, it borders upon a country where moſt people chooſe to ſtay, and which ſeems ſo pleaſant and inviting, that none when they are there will take the pains to go through further. This is the province of Falſe Thoughts. There all ſmiles, all ſeems enchanted, each ſtep you tread is upon flowers, even to an inconveniency of not being able to know your path for them: but this is not the only inconveniency, for the ground being boggy, and wanting ſolidity, it ſinks almoſt every where under you, and there is no ſure footing. Elegy is its capital city: the inhabitants of which are always making their moan, yet they do it generally ſo oddly, that you would think them in jeſt. The town is ſurrounded with woods, rocks, brooks, and caves, where they always walk ſolitary: theſe woods, &c. they make the *confidantes* of their amours, and are ſo afraid of being betrayed or overheard, that they uſed to enjoin them to eternal ſilence.

In this province are two little hamlets, Pun and Quibble, formerly very much reſorted to, and ſtill viſited too much by the inhabitants of Comedy and Farce.

Two rivers water the kingdom of Poetry: one the Rhime, which takes its ſpring at the foot of the mountains of Thoughtfulneſs, ſome of whoſe tops ſeem to loſe themſelves in the clouds, and are called the Tops of Sublimity: ſome few arrive to their height by repeated ſupernatural efforts, but an infinite number of others tumble down in the attempt, whoſe fall is attended by the laughter of thoſe who admired them without knowing them. Near the foot of thoſe mountains are the terraces of Low Thoughts, which are never empty, a vaſt number of people always walking upon them: at the end of them are the dark hollow caves of deep Reverie: many go to the bottom by inſenſible ſteps, and burythemſelves ſo much in their thoughts, that they find themſelves in theſe caves before they are aware of it. They are full of turns, and bye ways that puzzle them much, and you cannot imagine what pains they take to extricate themſelves. Near thoſe terraces are the walks of Natural Thoughts, which are eaſy and ſmooth, and uſed by a great many, who if they walked no where elſe none could blame them, but they ſoon yield to the temptation of entering into a very glittering palace not very far diſtant from thence, called the palace of Trifling. They are no ſooner there, but they, like thoſe that live there, become ſo idle and childiſh, that they are no more to be known. While thoſe who never leave the walks of Natural Thoughts are the moſt reaſonable of all, becauſe they ſoar no higher than they ought, and their expreſſions are always juſt and proper.

Beſide the river of Rhime, there is another called Reaſon. Theſe two rivers are diſtant enough from one another, and their courſe being very different, there can be no communication between them but by channels, which require a very great labour: neither can they be made every where, for only one end of the river Rhime anſwers to that of Reaſon. Thus ſeveral towns ſeated on Rhime, can have no communication with Reaſon, whatever pains may be taken. Beſides, thoſe channels muſt paſs through the Solitudes of Good Senſe, which is a country almoſt as little known as Terra Auſtralis.

Rhime is a great river, whoſe courſe is very winding and uneven, and has ſome very dangerous falls to thoſe who venture to navigate on it. On the contrary, the courſe of the river Reaſon is very ſtrait and even, and its ſtream clear and ſmooth, but it is a river that doth not bear all ſorts of veſſels.

There is in Poetry a very dark foreſt, called the foreſt of Nonſenſe, which is proof againſt the ſunbeams, and light itſelf cannot penetrate into it. Its trees are thick, buſhy, and all entangled into one another. It is ſo old, that men have made it almoſt a point of religion not to meddle with

its trees, nor is there a likelihood that ever any will dare either to weed or clear it. Men no ſooner ſet their foot in it, but they loſe themſelves, without ever being willing to believe they are gone aſtray: it is full of an infinite number of imperceptible labyrinths from which it is impoſſible to get out. In this foreſt the river of Reaſon loſes itſelf.

The large province of Imitation is very barren, and produces nothing: its inhabitants are very poor, and go a gleaning in their neighbour's fields, yet hardly ever acknowledge the kindneſs, although ſome of them grow rich by that trade.

Poetry is very cold toward the north. There we find the cities of Acroſtic, Anagram, and ſome others. The people ſpeaking another dialect than the more ſouthern counties, generally converſe with them in Latin, which moſt of them have very ready.

The iſle of Satire lies in the ocean of Learning, which bounds on one ſide the kingdom of Poetry: it is under its juriſdiction, like the iſle of Wight under that of Hampſhire. It is all ſurrounded with a bitter ſea, which abounds much in ſalt, principally a black ſort. It has many ſmall rivulets whoſe ſpring, like that of the Nile, is generally unknown; and what is more ſtrange, not one of them is freſh, but brackiſh at the beſt, and bitter to the taſte. The people are naturally inclined to correct their neighbours, and inveigh very ſeverely againſt their vices. Great numbers of them are alſo malicious, blunt and coarſe, and freely ſacrifice their friend to their jeſt, which is ſo burdenſome to them, that they will hazard a beating to be rid of it. They ſpare neither age, ſex, nor condition, which makes them the hatred of the reſt of the kingdom, who ſometimes are forced to bribe them with preferments, to ſtop their barking. The natural propenſity which the inhabitants of Poetry have to hate and calumniate one another, is a great encouragement to the Satirists, for whatever they ſay is always heard by the others with a great deal of pleaſure, provided it be not concerning themſelves.

Near this iſland is the peninſula of Epigram, which has a ſharp point, and is very pleaſant, although of ſmall extent.

Near the continent is the Archipelago of Bagatelles; they are a vaſt number of little iſlands ſcattered here and there, like the Maldivæ, nature having taken a pleaſure to be wanton there, no leſs than in the Egean ſea. The chief are the iſlands of Madrigals, Songs, Sonnets, Catches, &c. and float up and down continually in the water, being the lighteſt things in the world.

There is a province in Poetry called the Bucolic: the people there never lived in cities, having a mortal averſion to them. Its chief village is called Paſtoral, and they would be the there the happieſt men in the world, were they not generally unfortunate in love, which cauſes their ſheep to go aſtray, or be devoured by the wolves, whom they yet think often kinder than their miſtreſſes, and could never extirpate as we did in England. They are commonly ſo full of gallantry, that if they did not ſpeak of their flocks and rural concerns, they might be miſtaken for courtiers. The village Eclogue is not near ſo large as Paſtoral, but in my mind more pleaſant: the ſweetneſs of its air; its pleaſant fields and vallies; its ſhady groves and purling ſtreams; the natural ſoftneſs in the language of its inhabitants, and the eaſe and tranquillity of their life, affect us with a more ſenſible and real pleaſure, than all the glittering noiſy pomp of courts and cities: as the lilies and roſes of their nymphs charm more than the gold and ſparkling gems of the great; though ſome of its inhabitants are often as much too rhetorical and witty, as others are too clowniſh. I ought now to give you an account of the government, manners, and cuſtoms of Poetry, but that I muſt defer to another opportunity; and am, ſir, yours,

P. M.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, October.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.
1	7	29,77	49	56,5	63	h	WSW 1	. little rain
	2	29,79	55	58	62	h	WSW 1	. rainy night
2	7	29,80	58,5	59	72	5	WSW 2	. little wet. fine
F	2	29,80	64	62	68	2	SW 3	. leſs wind. rain at night. fine
3	7	29,88	48	59	62	1	WSW 1	. more wind. cloudy at times
	2	29,80	60	60	60	4	SW 3	little wet. ſhowers and fine
4	7	29,80	49,5	58	63	1	WSW 2	. cloudy at times : ſhower
	2	29,83	56	59	59	2	W 3	. ſhower. leſs wind
5	7	29,85	44	54	63	1	WSW 2	
	2	29,84	56,5	59	57	3	W 1	. thick upward at night
6	7	29,62	51	57	67	5	ESE 1	. little wet at times : rain
	2	29,48	55	59	68	6	E 1	much gentle rain. fine night : ſhowery
7	7	29,62	55,5	59,5	72	4	SSE 2	. ſhowers but chiefly fine
	2	29,46	60,5	61,5	65	4	S 3	. rain at times but chiefly fine : leſs wind
8	7	29,59	56	60	66	1	SSW 1	. little rain. fine and more wind
	2	29,65	62	62	58	2	SW 3	. leſs wind. rainy eve and night : fine
9	7	29,52	51,5	59,5	66	1	SW 2	. ſhower at noon
	2	29,31	58	60,5	65	3	SSW 3	. cloudy. rain at times. more wind : fine
10	7	29,15	48,5	57,5	63	1	SW 3	. more cloudy and little rain at times
	2	29,24	54	59	58	4	W 4	. little wet at times. leſs wind and fine night
11	7	29,53	48	54,5	62	1	WNW 1	. chiefly cloudy
	2	29,75	56	56,5	60	5	NW 1	. fine night
12	7	30,08	43	55	60	2	NW 1	
	2	30,16	50,5	56	55	2	NW 1	: little rain
13	7	30,34	44	53	59	4	W 1	. foggy. fine
	2	30,40	54,5	55	61	3	W 1	hazy. thick upward at night. fine
14	7	30,44	47,5	54	65	5	W 1	
	2	30,36	54,5	56	64	5	W 2	. little rain in the night : fine
15	7	30,24	48,5	52,5	62	2	WNW 1	
	2	30,26	54,5	56,5	58	3	WNW 2	. clear night
16	7	30,46	42	53,5	62	1	NW 1	: cloudy
	2	30,53	52	56,5	58	4	NW 2	. thick upward at night. clear
17	7	30,36	42	52	63	2	NW 1	hazy. more cloudy
	2	30,53	51,5	54	62	4	WSW 1	hazy. thick upward at night
18	7	30,49	48,5	52,5	62	5	W 1	hazy
N	2	30,48	55	56	60	4	W 1	hazy. thick upward at night
19	7	30,53	51,5	55	62	4	W 0	
	2	30,54	53	56	61	5	W 0	. thick upward at eve
20	7	30,50	51	56	61	h	S 1	
	2	30,43	54,5	57	61	h	WSW 1	. clear night
21	7	30,18	48	55	64	5	S 2	: gentle rain
	2	30,03	55	58	70	5	WSW 2	gentle rain. fine eve. clear
22	7	30,18	38,5	51	59	0	WNW 1	hazy
	2	30,29	48	53	54	3	NNW 2	hazy. cloudleſs eve. thick upward
23	7	30,34	42,5	48,5	61	h	W 1	. fine. thick upward
	2	30,37	49,5	52	62	h	W 1	ſlight fog. thick upward at night
24	7	30,40	62	52	64	5	WNW 0	. foggy. fine
	2	30,39	52	54	58	1	W 1	hazy. more cloudy eve. thick upward
25	7	30,27	47	53	64	h	W 0	. little rain. fair and cloudy
	2	30,19	52,5	55	63	5	SSW 1	. fine eve : little rain
26	7	29,78	50	54	64	4	S 1	. rain : chiefly fine
	2	29,72	52,5	56,5	64	3	W 1	hazy. clear night
27	7	29,84	40,5	50,5	63	2	WSW 1	hazy. gentle rain : chiefly fine
	2	29,87	48,5	52,5	63	3	WSW 2	. little rain at times
28	7	29,97	46,5	52	64	4	WNW 1	hazy : little rain
	2	30,03	51,5	52,5	63	5	W 1	hazy. much gentle rain. fine night
29	7	30,17	46	53	64	2	W 1	foggy. hazy
	2	30,28	51,5	55,5	62	3	WNW 1	hazy. more cloudy night
30	7	30,29	47	53	60	4	WSW 1	hazy. fine : cloudy
	2	30,18	52	54	60	5	SW 2	: little rain
31	7	30,03	50	54	67	6	SSW 1	chiefly rain : fine
	2	30,04	52,5	55	62	3	WNW 1	. cloudleſs eve

REMARKS *on the State of the* AIR, VEGETATION, *&c. in* October.

THE weather was very pleaſant, in general; and from the 16th to the 20th the barometer was at 30 inches and a half, or upward. On the 27th, Chryſanthemum Indicum began to flower; and the ſown wheat ſeems to vegetate well.

Rain 1 inch 39 hundredths.

OBSERVATIONS *on the* DISEASES *in* October.

DYSENTERIC complaints were very prevalent at the beginning of the month, but they gradually declined, and before its termination were rarely met with. To theſe catarrh ſucceeded, accompanied with a ſlight degree of fever, and in general terminating with ſlight *eryſipelatous* eruptions on the upper lip: it frequently happened that a dry cough occurred, without any ſecretion from the membrane of the noſe, in which caſe the fever became more conſiderable and the recovery more tedious. *Typhus* fever, which likewiſe ſeemed ſubſiding, made its appearance again at the end of the month, threatning to ſpread with more violence than before. Smallpox was much on the decline, and meaſles rarely met with. The burials, from the 1ſt to the 28th, were 1597.

MEMORABILIA OF NOVEMBER.

Likes leaves on trees the race of man is found,
Now green in youth, now withering on the ground.
Another race the following ſpring ſupplies,
They fall ſucceſſive, and ſucceſſive riſe:
So generations in their courſe decay,
So flouriſh theſe, when thoſe are paſſed away. POPE.

ON the name of this month, we ſhall only obſerve, that it is the eleventh in the Julian year, but the ninth in the year of Romulus, from which latter circumſtance the name is derived.

Mr. Aubrey, a great reckoner of days, and from whom, indeed, we took the firſt hint of theſe Memorabilia, has the following curious remarks on the *events* of this month, or, at leaſt, of one particular day of it.

'I ſhall,' ſays he, 'take particular notice here of the *third* of November, both becauſe it is my own birth-day, and alſo for that I have obſerved ſome remarkable accidents to have happened thereupon.—Conſtantius the emperor, ſon of Conſtantine the Great, little inferior to his father, a worthy warrior, and good man, died the 3d of November. Thomas Montacute, earl of Saliſbury, that great man, and famous commander under Henry IV, V and VI; died this day, by a wound of a cannon ſhot he received at Orleans. So alſo cardinal Borrhomeo, famous for his ſanctity of life, and therefore canonized, died this day. Sir John Perot, a man very remarkable in his time, lord deputy of Ireland, ſon to Henry VIII, and extremely like him, died in the Tower, the 3d of November. Stow in his annals ſays, Anno 1099, November 3, as well in Scotland as in England, the ſea broke in, over the banks of many rivers, drowning divers towns, and much people, with an innumerable number of oxen and ſheep, at which time the lands in Kent, ſometime belonging to

earl Goodwin, were covered with ſands, and drowned, and to this day are called Goodwin's ſands.

'I had an eſtate left me in Kent, of which between thirty and forty acres was marſh-land, very conveniently flanking its up-land; and in thoſe days this marſh-land was uſually let for four nobles an acre. My father died 1643. Within a year and a half after his deceaſe, ſuch charges and water-ſchots came upon this marſh-land, by the influence of the ſea, that it was never worth one farthing to me, but very often eat into the rents of the up-land: ſo that I often think, this day being my birth-day, hath the ſame evil influence upon me, that it had 580 years ſince upon earl Goodwin, and others concerned in low-lands.

'The parliament ſo fatal to Rome's concerns here, in Henry the eighth's time, began the 3d of November, in which the pope and all his authority, was clean baniſhed the realm.—The 3d of November alſo 1640, began that parliament ſo direfully fatal to England, in its peace, its wealth, its religion, its gentry, its nobility, nay, its king.'

But our curious author did not live to ſee the principal event which merits, as it always receives, commemoration in this month, the landing of king William, and the glorious revolution which followed, or rather of which this was the chief incident. We cannot contemplate the hiſtory of this revolution, and compare it with what has happened in another country, without felicitating ourſelves that what was called for by imperious neceſſity, was brought about by mild and wiſe meaſures, and that our annals are not on this occaſion ſtained with the blood of king, nobles or prieſts.

An event, which we may call of a contre-revolutionary nature, likewiſe occurred in this month, and is ſtill commemorated, the gunpowder-plot, an event, ſays Hume, one of the moſt memorable that hiſtory has conveyed to poſterity, and containing at once a ſingular proof both of the ſtrength and weakneſs of the human mind; its wideſt departure from morals, and moſt ſteady attachment to religious prejudices—a fact as certain as it appears incredible. It is well known that the penetration of the king, James 1, is ſaid to have made the diſcovery of this plot, from an obſcure letter ſent to one of his lords. Some hiſtorians, however, have imagined, that the king had ſecret intelligence of the conſpiracy, and that the letter to lord Monteagle was written by his direction, in order to obtain the praiſe of penetration in diſcovering the plot. This is nothing to ſupport this opinion. It may be, that the earl Saliſbury's ſagacity led the king in his conjectures, and that the miniſter, like an artful courtier, gave his maſter the praiſe of the whole diſcovery.

Two very awful events occurred in this month, the earthquake at Liſbon, in which above 70,000 perſons are ſaid to have been deſtroyed—and 'The great ſtorm,' as it is uſually called, and by much the moſt dreadful event experienced in England. It happened on the 26th of Nov. 1703, and is, we believe, ſtill commemorated in ſome places, by an annual ſermon on that day. Defoe, the author of Robinſon Cruſoe, and other ingenious writings, publiſhed an account of this ſtorm in an octavo volume, though without his name. The damage both by land and ſea was the greateſt ever known by any one tempeſt recorded in hiſtory.

In this month occurred one of thoſe victories over the French fleet, which have diſtinguiſhed the ſkill and valour of the Britiſh navy. We allude to the victory admiral Hawke gained over Conflans in 1759, and which, like ſome of our late victories, prevented an intended invaſion of this country.

Among the illuſtrious *births* in November, may be reckoned, the ill-fated monarch Charles 1, and ſir Philip Sidney, mentioned in our laſt, Tycho Brahé, the very celebrated

aſtronomer, who died from an exceſs of delicacy in not leaving a room, at the call of nature. Some other ſingular things are told of his credulity. If he met an old woman when he went out of doors, or a hare upon the road on a journey, he uſed to turn back immediately, being perſuaded that it was a bad omen. He once had at his houſe a madman, whom he placed at his feet at table, and fed himſelf. As he imagined that every thing ſpoken by mad perſons preſaged ſomething, he carefully obſerved all that this man ſaid; and becauſe it ſometimes proved true, he imagined it might always be depended upon. Such are the weakneſſes of men of genius.—Dr. Halley, our no leſs celebrated Engliſh aſtronomer.—Richard Baxter, the moſt eminent of the Engliſh nonconformiſts, and a moſt voluminous author. Biſhop Burnet is inclined to think him one of the moſt learned men of the age. Of Baxter, Dr. Johnſon entertained a very high opinion, and often ſpoke of him as a man of great parts, profound learning, and exemplary piety: he ſaid that the office for the Communion drawn up by him, and produced at the Savoy Conference, was one of the fineſt compoſitions of the ritual kind he had ever ſeen.—To theſe we may add, the well known names and characters of Bayle, Swift, Goldſmith and Chatterton, the laſt a genius who occaſioned no little controverſy to detect his forgeries, which will ſoon probably be buried in oblivion with the more recent Shakſpeare manuſcripts.

Among the illuſtrious *deeths*, we are in *etiquette* bound to rank queen Mary, the implacable *perſecutor* of the reformation and reformers; her reign was ſhort, to her ſubjects, bloody, to herſelf with all her zeal, moſt unhappy.—The other royal perſonage in our liſt Guſtavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, was equally memorable as a *ſupporter* of the proteſtant intereſt in Germany.—Camden, the very celebrated antiquary, and who laid the foundation of all our preſent county hiſtories.—Wolſey, that ſtanding monument of the inſtability of human grandeur and of ambition, who yet has left at Oxford and Windſor eminent proofs of his taſte for the fine arts, and of his munificent ſpirit.

Two of the moſt eminent divines of the age, in the church, and diſſenting intereſt, are to be added to this liſt, archbiſhop Tillotſon, and Dr. Watts. Of few men has ſo much been ſaid, and ſo much in their praiſe. Dr. Tillotſon was certainly one of the moſt unblemiſhed characters that ever adorned the church, and at a time when blemiſhes were anxiouſly ſought for. His works have been often reprinted, but of late, if we may judge from the cheap price at which they are ſold, they have been leſs read than they merit. Of Dr. Watts, a name ſtill ſo popular, what can we add to the elegant encomium of Dr. Johnſon? 'Few men have left behind ſuch purity of character, or ſuch monuments of laborious piety. He has provided inſtruction for all ages, from thoſe who are liſping their firſt leſſons, to the enlightened readers of Malbranche and Locke; he has left neither corporeal nor ſpiritual nature unexamined; he has taught the art of reaſoning, and the ſcience of the ſtars.'

Dr. Ratcliffe, the founder of the Library at Oxford, known by his name, died in November. Anecdotes enough are told of this phyſician to make a Jeſt Book. The following we take from the Richardſoniana. He could never be brought to pay bills without much following and importunity; nor then if there appeared any chance of wearying them out. A paviour, after long and fruitleſs attempts, caught him juſt getting out of his chariot at his own door, in Bloomſbury-ſquare, and ſet upon him. 'Why, you raſcal,' ſaid the Doctor, 'do you pretend to be paid for ſuch a piece of work? Why you have ſpoiled my pavement, and then covered it over with earth to hide your bad

work.' 'Doctor,' ſaid the paviour, '*mine* is not the only bad work that the earth hides!' 'You dog, you,' ſaid the doctor, 'are you a wit? you muſt be poor, come in;' and paid him.

Broome, the poet, but little known, although admitted into Dr. Johnſon's collection; and Churchill of worthleſs memory as a man, but of undeniable genius as a poet, may nearly cloſe our account. Churchill's misfortune, as a poet, was to write to the times, and act to the times, and what leſs could be expected of one who ſhared the morals and politics of Wilkes? We have more pleaſure in concluding our liſt, with the elegant and moral Hawkeſworth, well known as the author of the Adventurer, one of our beſt modern periodical papers, and in which he was aſſiſted by Dr. Johnſon, and Dr. Warton.

OF PLEASURE AND PAIN.

[From Dr. Gregory's 'Economy of Nature.']

TO excite us to the actions of thinking and motion, ſays Mr. Locke, the author of nature has joined to ſeveral thoughts and ſenſations a perception of delight; without this we ſhould have no reaſon to prefer one thought or action to another, motion to reſt; in which ſtate man, however furniſhed with the faculties of underſtanding, &c. would be a very idle, inactive creature, and paſs his time only in a lethargic dream. Pain has the ſame effect, continues he, to ſet us on work that pleaſure has; ſince we are as ready to avoid that as to purſue this.

It is evident, that pain and pleaſure are relative terms, expreſſive of an alteration in the ſtate of the perſon, bodily or mental. 1. Some degree of pleaſure or pain attends almoſt every impreſſion on the five ſenſes. 2. Relief from an uneaſy ſituation is pleaſure; thus, the wants conſequent on our natural appetites are painful, and to ſatisfy them pleaſant. 3. The recollection of the ideas of thoſe things which are hurtful to the body, or ideas aſſociated with them, is productive of trouble of the mind, and the contrary, as will be amply proved hereafter.

So far is evident from experience. To aſcertain the nature and cauſe of painful and pleaſurable ſenſations is an inquiry of ſome difficulty. Anatomiſts and phyſiologiſts are, I apprehend, very generally agreed in one point; it will therefore be ſufficient to ſubjoin the opinion of one of the moſt eminent. 'All I ſhall aſſume (ſays Dr. Munro) is what is founded on experiments, that ſenſation and motion do depend upon the nerves; that ſenſations are pleaſant as long as the nerves are only *gently* affected, without any *violence* offered to them; but as ſoon as any great force goes beyond this, and threatens a ſolution of union, it creates that uneaſy ſenſation, pain.'

If we examine the whole of human life, we ſhall find almoſt the whole of poſitive pleaſure to conſiſt in action of ſome kind. Sleep will hardly come under the denomination of poſitive pleaſure. It is deſired, becauſe it produces a relief from wearineſs, and is a ſtate to which our bodies naturally tend when fatigued: otherwiſe it is a ſtate of inſenſibility, and it would be an abuſe of language to call it pleaſure. Some impreſſions are primarily grateful, and others diſagreeable. That the painful and diſagreeable are ſuch by an intenſe degree of agitation, which ſtrains and prejudices the organs of ſenſe, is probable. It is alſo probable, that the agreeable follow the general law of our nature, and are pleaſing on account of the gentle, yet lively, action or agitation excited in us. There will remain little doubt of the truth of this doctrine, if we conſider that light and heat in a mode-

rate degree are productive of pleaſure, and in greater quantities hurt by their intenſeneſs: that many acids, &c. which when diluted, are agreeable to the taſte, are highly painful when applied pure and unmixed. In fine, abſolute reſt is the death of ſenſe. Motion is the very characteriſtic of animal life: and moſt of our intellectual as well as ſenſible pleaſures ſeem to depend on a moderate increaſe of action. Recalling an old idea, which is connected with a train of other ideas, is manifeſtly pleaſing: and this appears to reſult from the gentle agitation imparted to the organs of thought. 'The muſic was like the memory of joys that are paſt, mournful, but pleaſant to the ſoul.' The pleaſures of the imitative arts, of figurative language, of the ſublime, the beautiful, and ſtill more, the pleaſures of variety, will meet an eaſy ſolution in this principle.

Of pains, ſome are poſitive, as really affecting the body, others only affecting the mind by being connected with painful ideas: and further, pain is generally conſequent on the abſence, or deprivation of pleaſure; that is, our expectations are diſappointed, and we are robbed of the pleaſure of hope, for we are ever in purſuit of pleaſure: but the pain is always greater in proportion as the expectation was probable. Thus, there are many ſounds, which, though very diſſonant, ſcarcely give us pain: yet to a good ear the ſmalleſt diſſonance of muſic is offenſive. The ſame may be obſerved in painting, architecture, &c.

Our ideas flowing naturally in a train, whatever is introduced forcibly, and bearing not an immediate connection, pains the mind, becauſe it diſtracts it with the variety of ideas, which are crowded together by the collateral circumſtances introduced by it, as well as thoſe depending on the former train of thought.

An impreſſion, which was painful, will leave a trace or idea of pain behind it, and a pleaſurable impreſſion an agreeable idea: theſe, it is plain, may be excited by any of the aſſociated circumſtances. But the ſtrongeſt relation is that of *cauſation*. What we conceive to be the *cauſe*, of painful or pleaſurable ſenſations will be immediately combined with thoſe ideas; and hence we always love or hate moſt vehemently what we conceive to produce pleaſure or pain. But as the principle of aſſociation is not confined to the relation of cauſe and effect only, any other circumſtance aſſociated by contiguity of time or place, or even by reſemblance, will partake of the paſſion. It is well known that the very word phyſic conveys a diſagreeable idea to children, who have been compelled to take nauſeous draughts, and they can ſcarcely endure the perſon of the apothecary. The mention of particular medicines will ſometimes excite vomiting in very delicate and irritable habits. Some medicines, palatable in themſelves, from the idea of their painful effects, we nauſeate.

The ſenſible pleaſures are greater in number than the ſenſible pains. Of this, waving any abſtract reaſoning, ſuch as the love of life, and the pleaſures of habit, any man may be convinced, who will be at the trouble of enumerating them. Now our intellectual pleaſures and pains are combinations of the ſenſible, and of courſe our pleaſures will be more numerous than our pains. Ideas ſeem to have a ſimilar effect on the mind to what ſome applications are ſaid to have on the body, which are ſedatives when applied in large quantities, and ſtimulants in ſmall. The ſight of tortures chills the whole ſoul, and produces almoſt a total ſtagnation of thought: but relations of tortures never have any ſuch effect, and men ſeem to find them agreeable, by the avidity with which they liſten to them. The truth is, a very violent mental agitation is required to produce pain, and every moderate agitation will produce pleaſure: a proof that the intellectual pleaſures muſt be very numerous, and the intellectual pains very few. A

deſcription of a ſtorm or battle, which is really compoſed of painful or diſagreeable ideas, will excite in very few a degree of agitation which ariſes to pain, and moſt people experience an actual pleaſure from theſe deſcriptions. The very deformities of nature, a rugged and frightful hill, or a ſtorm of lightning, give us pleaſure, when exactly copied; and we read with pleaſure even of ill actions, and ſee the cruelties of tyrants repreſented on the theatre with a kind of ſolemn delight. This can only reſult, 1. From the mental agitation, which theſe trains of thought produce. 2. From ſome agreeable ideas, which may be connected with the train of thought: for the mind is ever ready to turn and embrace pleaſing aſſociations, and ſeldom fond of purſuing a diſagreeable train. 3. Variety is generally connected with rude nature, and imperfect characters.

The pleaſure reſulting from narratives of apparitions, enchantments, &c. may be accounted for on the ſame principles; and from the pleaſure attendant on them reſults the eaſy belief which men afford to ſuch fancies.

The pleaſure of *utility* reſults from the ideas of pleaſure that are aſſociated with the ends of any work or undertaking. Hence theſe pleaſurable ideas become aſſociated with the employment itſelf. Though in ſome inſtances this effect may be counteracted, the general principle holds nevertheleſs true.

Pleaſure may reſult from *ſurpriſe* on ſeveral accounts. The agitation which a moderate ſurpriſe occaſions is agreeable: but the ſurpriſe which is united with the ſatisfaction of finding ourſelves ſafe, after fancying we were in danger, is ſtill more exquiſite; and, perhaps, the moſt exquiſite of all is, when we find occaſion for ſelf-commendation, as in ſolving a problem, &c.

The pleaſure of *variety* ſeems to be the effect chiefly of the moderate, and yet lively agitation, which ſeveral trains of thought induce.

Though it appears from all that has been ſaid, that gentle agitation is in general productive of pleaſure, yet the mind has likewiſe a natural love of eaſe, and will not bear much fatigue: a little exertion ſoon tires it: for this reaſon, regularity is pleaſing. We readily embrace a regular figure: the train of thoughts flow naturally to the different parts: we comprehend it: our mind is ſatisfied with it. We purſue, with a kind of eaſy emotion, a regular ſeries: and hence it is, that men have been ſo fond of reaſoning from univerſal axioms. The irregular pleaſes in the works of nature from cuſtom, and the ideas connected with them. Nevertheleſs, where the end is pleaſure, we may lay it down as a univerſal rule, that an object ought to poſſeſs ſome degree of variety, without entirely departing from that uniformity we love.

HISTORICAL *and* SCIENTIFIC ACCOUNT *of the* PIANO FORTE.

[From Dr. Gleig's Supplement to the Encyclopedia Britannica.]

PIANO FORTE, otherwiſe called Forte Piano, is a well known muſical inſtrument, of which we need make no apology for conſidering the peculiarities with ſome attention. If we look on muſic from no higher point of view than as the *laborum dulce lenimen*, the innocent, the ſoothing, the cheering ſweetner of toil, we muſt acknowledge that it is far from being the meaneſt of thoſe enjoyments with which the bountiful Father of Men has embelliſhed this ſcene of our exiſtence. But there is a *ſcience* in muſic, independent of that artificial half mathematical doctrine which we have contrived to unite with it, and which really enables us to improve pure muſical pleaſure. Hence in the Engliſh univerſities degrees are conferred in muſic.

The voice is the original muſical

inſtrument, and all others are but imitations. The voice of man obeys the impulſe of the heart with wonderful promptitude, and ſtill more wonderful accuracy. A very coarſe ear is hurt by an error in its tone, amounting to what is called a *comma*. A very limited voice can execute melodies extending to twelve notes, or an octave and a fifth. The motion of the *glottis* between theſe extremes does not amount to one-twelfth of an inch. This muſt therefore be divided, by the moſt ordinary finger, into more than a thouſand parts; and this muſt be done in an inſtant, and repeated with rapidity, without even miſtaking one of theſe diviſions; and this is done every where and without any ſeeming effort or thought. The mechaniſm of the human organ for effecting this with eaſe and preciſion is very remarkable, and ſeems to prove that the author of our Being meant to give us this pleaſure.

When, in the cultivation of this fruit of our own ſoil, the moderns diſcovered the beauties of harmony or conſonance, and inſtruments of fixed ſounds were employed, by means of which theſe beauties could be exhibited in their utmoſt richneſs and variety; and particularly when the organ, that 'magic world of ſound,' was invented, the immenſe advantages of the ingenious ſpeculations of the ancient Greeks, about the diviſion of the *monochord* were now perceived, and muſic became a deep intellectual ſtudy. It fell into the hands of men of letters, and, for a long while, counterpoint occupied all their attention. Inſtruments of fixed ſounds were now made, not only with pipes, but with ſtrings, bells, rings, and every thing that could make a noiſe in tune.

But all theſe inſtruments were far inferior to the voice, the ſpontaneous gift of nature, in promptitude, and in the power of obeying every call of ſentiment, every degree, as well as every kind of emotion, with which the heart was agitated. The pleaſures of harmony, though great, were monotonous, and could not expreſs the momentary variations of ſentiment, which are as fleeting as the light and ſhade of a proſpect, while the dappled clouds ſail acroſs the ſky. The violin, and a ſmall number of the ſimple wind inſtruments, were found to be the only ones which could fully expreſs thoſe momentary gradations of ſentiment that give muſic its pathos, and enable it to thrill the very ſoul.

Attempts were made to remove this defect of the harmonic inſtruments, and the ſwell was added to the organ. The effect was great, and encouraged the artiſts to attempt ſimilar improvements on other inſtruments of the ſame kind. This was firſt done in the ſame way as in the organ. The harpſichord was ſhut up, like the ſwell organ, and was opened by means of pedals when the performer wiſhed to enforce the ſound. But the effect was far inferior to that of the ſwell organ; for this was (at leaſt in all great organs) a real addition of another properly ſelected ſound. But the effect of the pedal on the harpſichord could not be miſtaken; it was juſt like opening the door of a room where muſic was performing. Other methods were tried with better effect. Uniſons were added to each note, which were brought on either by means of pedals, or by another ſet of keys.

This method ſucceeded perfectly well, and the power of the harpſichord was greatly improved. But ſtill it was imperfect, becauſe it was only the more conſiderable changes of force which could be exhibited, and this only in one or two degrees. Other artiſts, therefore, attempted to conſtruct the inſtrument, ſo that the jacks (the moveable upright pieces which carry the quills) can be made to approach nearer to the wires, ſo that the quills ſhall give them a ſtronger twang. The mechaniſm was ſuch, that a very conſiderable motion of the pedal produced but a moſt minute motion of the quill; ſo that the performer was not reſtricted to the utmoſt preciſion

in the degree of preſſure. Some of thoſe inſtruments, when freſh from the hand of the artiſt, gave full ſatisfaction. But, though made in the moſt accurate manner, at an enormous expence, they very ſoon became unfit for the purpoſe. The hundredth part of an inch, more or leſs, in the place of the quill, will make a great odds in the force of the ſound. Nor does the ſame change of diſtance produce an equal alteration of ſound on different quills. Other inſtrument makers have therefore tried baked or prepared leather (buffalo hide) in place of quills; and it is found much more uniform in the tone which it produces, and alſo remains longer in the ſame ſtate; but the tone is not ſo powerful, nor in general ſo much reliſhed.

But all theſe contrivances, both in the organ and harpſichord, were ſtill very deficient. Whatever change could produce in the ſtrength of the ſound, was produced through the whole inſtrument, or at leaſt through two or three octaves. But the captivating expreſſion of muſic frequently reſults from the momentary ſwelling or ſoftening of a ſingle phraſe, or a ſingle note, in one of the parts. Hence ariſe the unrivalled powers of the harp, and the acknowledged ſuperiority of the theorbo, the lute, and even the guitar, over all keyed inſtruments, notwithſtanding their great limitations in harmony and in practicable melodies. Theſe inſtruments *ſpeak*, while the harpſichord only *plays*.

Many attempts have been made to enable the performer to produce, by the intervention of the key, all the gradations of ſtrength, and even the varieties of ſound, which the finger can bring forth by the different manner of pinching, bruſhing, or as it were, careſſing the ſtring: but we have no diſtinct account of any attempt that has ſucceeded. Such a thing would quickly ſpread over Europe. The compiler of the article *Luthier*, in the *Encyclopedie Methodique*, ſays a great deal about a harpſichord fitted with prepared buffalo leather inſtead of crow quills; and aſſerts expreſsly, that, by the mere preſſure on the key, without the aſſiſtance of pedals or ſtops of any kind, the leather is made to act with greater or leſs force on the ſtring. But he gives no account by which we can comprehend how this is brought about: and indeed he writes in terms which ſhow plainly that he has not ſeen the inſtrument, and is merely puffing ſomething that he does not underſtand.

The attempt has been made with more ſucceſs on keyed inſtruments, when the ſtrings are not pinched, but are rubbed by a wheel or band, in the manner of the *violle* (hurdy-gurdy) or ſtruck with a *plectrum*, like the dulcimer. The *celeſtina* (deſcribed by Merſennus by the name of *Archiviola)* is of this kind. A fine band of horſe hair or ſilk, filled with reſin, is extended under the ſtrings, and drawn ſmoothly along by a wheel. By a particular mechaniſm of the keys, this band is made to preſs or rub on any ſtring tranſverſely, as the ſtrings of a violin are touched by the bow. The preſſure on the key regulates the ſtrength of the tone. This inſtrument is not without conſiderable beauties, and will execute ſoft *cantabile* muſic in eaſy modulation, with great expreſſion and juſtneſs. But the artiſts have not yet been able to give it either clearneſs or brilliancy of tone, nor ſufficient force for concert muſic, nor that promptitude of touch that is indiſpenſably neceſſary for figurative muſic or quick movements.

The ſame improvements have been made on the pulſatile inſtruments; and indeed they are here the moſt obvious and eaſy. When the key is employed merely as the means of cauſing a plectrum to give a blow to the ſtring, the performer will hardly fail to give that degree of force which he feels proper for his intended expreſſion. Accordingly, many inſtruments of this kind have been made in Germany, where the artiſts have been long eminent for mechanical knacks. But all their inſtruments of the dulci-

mer kind are feeble and ſpiritleſs, and none of them have been brought into general uſe, if we except the *clavichord*. This is indeed an inſtrument of feeble, and not the moſt pleaſing ſound: but it is well fitted for giving every momentary gradation of ſtrength by the preſſure of the finger. It is therefore a good inſtrument for forming the muſical taſte by chamber practice, and was much uſed by compoſes in their ſtudies. It is alſo an ingenious, though ſeemingly an obvious and ſimple contrivance, and is capable of much more force, and even brilliancy of ſound, than has generally been given to it.

The conſtruction is ſhortly this. The inner end of the key is furniſhed with an upright piece, which terminates in an edge of braſs, ſomewhat like the end of a narrow blunt chiſel, whoſe line of direction is athwart the ſtrings. When the key is preſſed down, this edge ſtrikes the ſtring, and forces it out of the ſtraight line in which it is ſtretched between its pins. Thus the ſtring is ſhaken or jogged into vibration, in the ſame manner as we obſerve a tight rope ſet a vibrating by a ſudden jerk given to any part of it. The ſtring, thus agitated, gives a ſound, which will continue for ſome little time if the key be held down. As the tone depends on the length of the vibrating ſtring, as well as on its tenſion, it is of importance that the ſtroke be made on the preciſe point of the ſtring which terminates the proper length. The ſtring does not give the note correſponding to its whole length, but that which is produced by the part between the edge and the pin. And becauſe the parts of the ſtring on each ſide of the edge are equally thrown into vibration, the ſhorter portion of it muſt be wrapped up in a liſt of cloth, to prevent it from diſturbing the ear by its ſonorous vibrations. This, however, greatly diminiſhes the ſweetneſs of the ſound given by the other part.

The clavichord gives a fretful waſpiſh kind of ſound, not at all ſuited to tender expreſſion. If the bridge (for the end of the key is really a bridge during the ſound) were placed at an exact third of the length of the ſtring, and if both parts were free, and if the ſtroke be of a proper ſtrength, the ſtring would ſound its twelfth with great ſweetneſs, and with much more force and brilliancy than it does by the preſent conſtruction, and the clavichord would be a charming inſtrument for a leſſon, and for private ſtudy. We ſay this from experience of the power of one conſtructed under the direction of the great mathematician Euler, who was alſo an excellent judge of muſic and muſical compoſition. The tones of the upper part of that inſtrument had a ſort of pipe or vocal ſound, and were ſuperior in clearneſs and ſweetneſs to any ſtringed inſtrument we ever heard. But as this conſtruction required every ſtring to be one-half longer than a harpſichord wire of the ſame pitch, and as this would have made the inſtrument of a moſt inconvenient ſize, the baſſes were made ſhorter, by placing the bridge at one-ſixth of the length, and loading the ſhorter portion of the ſtring with wire twiſted round it. But although this was executed by a moſt dextrous artiſt, the tones were far inferior to thoſe of the trebles, and the inſtrument was like the junction of a very fine one and a very bad one, and made but hobbling muſic. This was probably owing to the impoſſibility of connecting the metal wire and its covering with ſufficient cloſeneſs and ſolidity. An upright clavichord, where the length would be no inconvenience, would be, indeed, a capital inſtrument for muſical ſtudy. It is worthy of remark, that Mr. Euler tried other diviſions of the ſtring by the bridge. When it is ſtruck preciſely in the middle, it ſhould ſound its octave; when it is ſtruck at one-fourth, it ſhould give the double octave, &c. But the maker found that theſe diviſions gave very indifferent, and even uncertain

tones: ſometimes not ſounding at all, and ſometimes ſounding beautifully. Our readers may reflect on the very different tone of the violin as it is bowed on different parts of the ſtring, and on the very different tones of the fore and back uniſons, and particularly of the cornet ſtop of the harpſichord. The harpſichords of Rucker are noted for the grand fullneſs of their tone: thoſe of Haſſe, of Dreſden, for their mellow ſweetneſs, and thoſe of Kirkmann, of London, for their unequal brilliancy. Theſe makers differ greatly in the placing of their quills.

But the Engliſh piano forte, by its ſuperior force of tone, its adequate ſweetneſs, and the great variety of voice of which our artiſts have made it ſuſceptible, has withdrawn all further attention from the clavichord, ſo that it is no longer probable that the learned contribution of the great Euler to public amuſement will be followed up. The piano forte correſponds to its name with great preciſion: for, without any other attention to effort than what ſentiment ſpontaneouſly dictates, and what we practiſe (without knowing it) on the harpſichord where it is ineffectual, we make the piano forte give every gradation of ſtrength to the ſound of the ſtring, and give it every expreſſion that an inſtrument, purely pulſatile, is capable of. It is alſo ſuſceptible of a very conſiderable variety of tone by the clothing of the mallets, which may be acute or obtuſe, hard or ſoft. And we ſee, by the effect of what are called the grand piano fortes, that they are fully equal to the harpſichord in fullneſs or body of tone. Nothing ſeems to be wanting to it but that ſliding, or, as the French call it, *careſſing* touch of the ſtring, by which a delicate finger, guided by fine taſte, cauſes the harp or lute to melt the heart, and excite its fineſt emotions. We truſt that the ingenuity of our Britiſh artiſts will accompliſh even this, and make this national inſtrument rival even the violin of Italy.

We call it a *national inſtrument*, not doubting but that this is a recommendation to a Britiſh heart, and becauſe we are very well aſſured that it is an Engliſh contrivance; the invention of a moſt excellent man and celebrated poet, Mr. William Maſon. His Caractacus and Elfrida may convince any perſon who is a judge of muſic, that he had a mind exquiſitely ſenſible of all its charms; and we cannot be ſurpriſed that it was one of his chief delights, No man enjoyed the pleaſures of muſic with more rapture: and he uſed to ſay, that his ſpeedieſt recruit from the fatigue of a long walk was to ſit down for a few minutes to the harpſichord. He had ſeen ſeveral of the German attempts to make keyed dulcimers, which were, in ſome meaſure, ſuſceptible of the *forte* and *piano*: but they were all on one principle, and required a particular touch of the finger, of difficult acquiſition, and which ſpoiled it for harpſichord practice. We have alſo ſeen of thoſe inſtruments ſome of very old date, and others of modern improvement. Some had very agreeable tones; but all were deficient in delicacy and juſtneſs. The performer was by no means certain of producing the very ſtrength of ſound that he intended. And, as Mr. Maſon obſerved, they all required an artificial peculiarity of fingering; without which, either the intended ſtrength of tone was not brought out, or the tone was deſtroyed by repeated rattling of the mallet on the wire. Mr. Maſon removed all theſe imperfections by detaching the mallet entirely from the key, and giving them a connection quite momentary; and by this principle of his, the Engliſh piano forte is diſtinguiſhed from all others.

After a minute deſcription of the inſtrument, which we omit, as it refers to a plate, the author of this article concluded with obſerving, that 'As the blow of ſo light a mallet cannot bring much ſound from a wire, it has always been found neceſſary to have two ſtrings for each note. An-

other circumſtance contributes to enfeeble the ſound. The mechaniſm neceſſary for producing it makes it almoſt impoſſible to give any conſiderable extent to the belly or ſound board of the inſtrument. There is ſeldom any more of it than what occupies the ſpace between the tuning pins and the bridge. This is the more to be regretted, becauſe the baſſes are commonly covered ſtrings, that they may be of a moderate length. The baſs notes are alſo of braſs, which has a conſiderably lower tone than a ſteel wire of the ſame diameter and tenſion. Yet even this ſubſtitution for ſteel in the baſs ſtrings is not enough. The higheſt of them are much too ſlack, and the loweſt ones muſt be loaded, to compenſate for want of length. This greatly diminiſhes the fulneſs, and ſtill more the mellowneſs and diſtinctneſs of the tone, and frequently makes the very loweſt notes hardly appreciable. This inequality of tone about the middle of the inſtrument is ſomewhat diminiſhed by conſtructing the inſtrument with two bridges; one for the ſteel, and the other for the braſs wires. But ſtill the baſs notes are very much inferior to the treble. It would ſurely be worth while to conſtruct ſome piano fortes, of full ſize with naked baſſes. If theſe were made with all the other advantages of the grand piano fortes, they would ſurpaſs all other inſtruments for the regulating power of their thorough baſs. We wiſh that the artiſts would alſo try to conſtruct them with the mechaniſm of mallets, &c. above the ſound board. This would allow to it the full extent of the inſtrument, and greatly improve the tone. It does not ſeem impoſſible, nor, we think, very difficult.'

[In addition to the above ingenious article, we would recommend to our readers a re-peruſal of a letter on the piano forte (of very different ſentiments from the preceding) which appeared in our Magazine for March 1793. It was written by an *amateur* of great taſte, but certainly of the *old ſchool*.]

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODES FROM ANACREON.

By THOMAS MOORE, Eſq.

I CARE not for the idle ſtate
Of Perſia's king, the rich, the great!
I envy not the monarch's throne,
Nor wiſh the treaſur'd gold my own.
But oh! be mine the roſy braid,
The fervor of my brows to ſhade;
Be mine the odours, richly ſighing,
Amid my hoary treſſes flying.
To-day I'll haſte to quaff my wine,
As if to-morrow ne'er ſhould ſhine;
But if to-morrow comes, why then—
I'll haſte to quaff my wine again.
And thus while all our days are bright,
Nor time has dimm'd their bloomy light,
Let us the feſtal hours beguile,
With mantling cup and cordial ſmile;
And ſhed from every bowl of wine
The richeſt drops on Bacchus' ſhrine!
For death may come with brow unpleaſant,
May come when leaſt we wiſh him preſent,
And beckon to the ſable ſhore,
And grimly bid us—drink no more!

TELL me, why, my ſweeteſt dove,
Thus your humid pinions move,
Shedding through the air in ſhowers
Eſſence of the balmieſt flowers?
Tell me whither, whence you rove—
Tell me all—my ſweeteſt dove.
Curious ſtranger! I belong
To the bard of Teian ſong;
With his mandate now I fly
To the nymph of azure eye;
Ah! that eye has madden'd many,
But the poet more than any!
Venus for a hymn of love,
Warbled in her votive grove,
('Twas in ſooth a gentle lay)
Gave me to the bard away.
See me now his faithful minion:
Thus with ſoftly-gliding pinion,
To his lovely girl I bear
Songs of paſſion through the air.
Oft he blandly whiſpers me
'Soon, my bird, I'll ſet you free.'
But in vain he'll bid me fly,
I ſhall ſerve him till I die.
Never could my plumes ſuſtain
Ruffling winds and chilling rain,

O'er the plains, or in the dell,
On the mountain's ſavage ſwell;
Seeking in the deſert wood
Gloomy ſhelter, ruſtic food.
Now I lead a life of eaſe,
Far from ſuch retreats as theſe;
From Anacreon's hand I eat
Food delicious, viands ſweet;
Flutter o'er his goblet's brim,
Sip the foamy wine with him.
Then I dance and wanton round
To the lyre's beguiling ſound;
Or with gently-fanning wings.
Shade the minſtrel while he ſings:
On his harp then ſink in ſlumbers,
Dreaming ſtill of dulcet numbers!
This is all—away—away—
You have made me waſte the day.
How I've chatter'd—prating crow
Never yet did chatter ſo.

THE Phrygian rock, that braves the ſtorm,
Was once a weeping matron's form—
And Progne, hapleſs, frantic maid,
Is now a ſwallow in the ſhade.
Oh! that a mirror's form were mine,
To ſparkle with that ſmile divine;
And like my heart I then ſhould be,
Reflecting thee, and only thee!
Or were I, love, the robe which flows
O'er every charm that ſecret glows,
In many a lucid fold to ſwim,
And cling and grow to every limb!
Oh! could I, as the ſtreamlet's wave,
Thy warmly-mellowing beauties lave,
Or float as perfume on thine hair,
And breathe my ſoul in fragrance there!
I wiſh I were the zone, that lies
Warm to thy breaſt, and feels its ſighs;
Or like thoſe envious pearls that ſhow
So faintly round that neck of ſnow.
Yes—I would be a happy gem,
Like them to hang, to fade like them;
What more would thy Anacreon be?
Oh! any thing that touches thee.
Nay, ſandals for thoſe airy feet—
Thus to be preſs'd by thee were ſweet!

STANZAS FROM THE ITALIAN.

By Mr. SOAME.

TO love, my Laura, let us give
The little ſpan we have to live;
Our moments, ſwift as arrows fly,
And wing'd, like them, with deſtiny.

'Tis not, 'tis not everlaſting,
But to ſwift deſtruction haſting,
The pride of youth's elufive hour,
Thy peerleſs beauty's blooming flow'r.

Yon orb, that now deſcends to lave
His axle in the weſtern wave,
The ſame, or more refulgent ſtill,
Shall riſe at morn o'er yonder hill.

Tho' winter from the woodlands tear
Their verdant ſpoils, and leave them bare;
Yet theſe another ſpring ſhall view
With fairer foliage cloth'd anew.

Our 'May of life,' alone, no more
Revolving ſeaſons ſhall reſtore;
And death, o'er man's expiring light,
Lets fall interminable night.

Once in the 'narrow houſe of clay,'
'To dumb forgetfulneſs a prey,'
No dreams of joy, no tale of love,
The deep perennial gloom remove.

Then come, and e'er the ſtern beheſt
Of fate forbids us to be bleſt;
While beauty blooms, and paſſion glows,
Haſte, let us ſnatch the ſhort-liv'd roſe?

Let doting gray-beards ring in vain
Dull changes on the moral ſtrain;
Their frozen maxims nought avail;
Our hearts repeat a warmer tale.

To love then, Laura, let us give
The little ſpan we have to live!
Our moments ſwift as arrows fly,
And wing'd, like them, with deſtiny.

THE GENEROUS SOLDIER.

An Anecdote by Mr. BOOKER.

BESIDE a path, worn bare by frequent feet,
Sat—ſhiv'ring in the blaſt—an hoary wretch,
On whoſe quench'd eye-balls the meridian ſun
Waſted its beams. A weather-beaten cap
He, ſilent, held; and left his piteous caſe
To tongue his woes. But few more falt'ring ſteps,
Thro' the dark world, he lonely had to tread,
And then find ſhelter in the peaceful grave.
—Speechleſs he ſat; but ſat not long, in vain.
A brave defender of old England's iſle
Came where he was; and, with obſervant eye,
Beheld and pitied him. On furlough bent,
A knapſack o'er his belted ſhoulders lay,
Containing his attire—ſoon told; ſmall wealth
He boaſted elſe; yet, of that little, caſt
A lib'ral portion to the ſuppliant old,—
Unſeen, he ween'd, by ev'ry mortal eye.

But *one*, not leſs with admiration touch'd
Than he with pity, ſaw the gen'rous deed,
And thus him inſtant hail'd: 'Well pleas'd, brave youth,
Witneſs'd have I thy bounty; which but ill
A ſoldier's purſe can ſpare—Allow me thus
Such goodneſs to requite: be this thy mead.'
He ſaid—preſenting, with his courteous ſpeech,
A piece of ſilver. Grateful, this, receiv'd
The youthful warrior, and, receding ſtraight,
The ſplendid coin beſtow'd where late he threw
His former off'ring: then the doner kind
Accoſted thus—'Forgive, too gen'rous ſir!
My rude appropriation of thy gift,
Which that poor ſuff'rer's wants more urgent need,
Than do my own.'—This ſaid, he hied away—
Swift, as if marching to the battle's call,
Debarring further converſe; or afraid
To hear the voice of praiſe. Unknown, he fled,
Defeating ev'ry purpoſe to promote
Him in the martial ranks which Freedom's iſle
Guard from each hoſtile arm.—But where pale want
Compaſſion's willing mite no more ſhall claim,
The King of kings near his eternal throne
Will place the Chriſtian-hero: for the deed
Approving ſpirits, on aërial wing,
To heav'n's high chancery, delighted, bore;
And the recording angel it inſcrib'd
On monumental adamant and gold,
In glorious characters of living light,
Bright as the ſun, and purer than his fires.

The CHILD of SORROW'S TALE.

DENY, but do not taunt a maid
Who never ſcorn with ſcorn repays;
Proud man, though now I aſk your aid,
Mine once, alas! were happier days.
But Sorrow mark'd me for her own
Before I told my twentieth year—
Yet when my friends began to frown,
I but reproach'd them with—a tear.

I ne'er could frame the harſh reply,
The look unkind by feeling fear'd,
E'en when I met diſdain's cold eye,
E'en when I cruel language heard.
I've ſeen my friend, my earlieſt friend,
Refuſe my tale of woe to hear;
Yet ſtill unwilling to offend,
All my remembrance was—a tear.

And I have known the ſlanderer's tongue
My fame with vile diſhonour taint,
Yet on my lips no curſes hung,
Tho' *mournful, mild* was my complaint,
And I was forced by cruel power
To leave the ſcenes I held moſt dear:
O! 'twas indeed a trying hour!
Yet all my language was—a tear.

And I have known the youth I lov'd
Retract the vows he ſwore to me,
Behold my pallid cheek unmoved,
And ſmiling boaſt that he was free!
Yet I was calm—and (hour of dread!)
I ſaw him woo a maid more dear—
But I was mute, I only ſhed
No—no!—I *could not ſhed* a tear!

Ah! full was then my cup of grief—
Friends, fortune, lover, fame, all loſt—
A beggar now I aſk relief,
A ſmall, a *trifling* boon at moſt.
Still can you chide me from your door?
Ah, no!—your looks compaſſion wear—
So large a gift!—Oh! *words* were poor—
I thank, I bleſs you in—a tear.

O. A.

On Viewing the MONASTERY, lately erected at LULWORTH *.

By JOSEPH HUCKS.

PERISH the bigot gloom of ancient years,
That whelm'd the world in darkneſs and in tears!
Shall Superſtition, clad in monkiſh cowl,
Spread her pale terrors o'er the ſhrinking ſoul?
And ſtill to reaſon deaf, to Nature blind,
Diffuſe her empire o'er the abject mind?
Shall man the ſocial ſcenes of life reſign,
To wet with ceaſeleſs tears religion's ſhrine?
Live in a world of beauty and of love,
Unbleſſing and unbleſt, and heaven approve?
O thou who bendeſt from yon azure ſky
Down on theſe realms thy never ſlumbering eye,

* The Monks of this Monaſtery profeſs themſelves of the rigid order of the Carthuſians. They eat nothing but vegetables and black bread; ſleep on a hard board, in the cold weather, in their clothes, which they ſeldom pull off; and devote themſelves to ſtrict ſilence.

Didſt thou for this thy bounteous arm extend,
And thy own beauty to creation lend?
For this bid ſmile all nature at her birth,
And ever-varying charms enrich the earth?
O no, Religion, offſpring of the ſkies,
Breathes the bleſt ſounds of ſocial charities;
She ſpeaks of hope, ſhe ſoftens human woes,
And ſoft perſuaſion from each accent flows;
She ſhuns the grandeur of the Gothic pile,
The high-arch'd roof, and monumental aiſle;
The perfumed altar, and time-moulder'd cells,
And cloyſters pale, where Superſtition dwells;
Roams free as air all Nature's haunts among,
Where pour the woodland choir their artleſs ſong;
At ſabbath dawn a ſober joy ſhe feels,
To hear the village bells reſponſive peals;
With grateful heart, and eyes ſuffus'd in tears,
She views the thouſand forms that nature wears,
The laughing morn with orient colours glow,
The ſun's laſt bluſhes tinge the mountain's brow:
Eve's ſober ſhadows o'er the landſcape riſe,
And the night's ſtarry ſplendour deck the ſkies.
Far from the buſy world's infected pale,
With Peace ſhe ſojourns in the cottaged vale;
Helpleſs and wan, where loath'd diſtemper lies,
Where, in dumb anguiſh, grief's pale votary ſighs,
Thither ſhe ſpeeds with angel look ſerene,
And ſoothes with words of hope each ſaddening ſcene.
Now ſhe delights to view, ſublime of ſoul,
The ocean flood, or hear the thunder roll;
Now wandering ſlow the river's winding ſhore,
Or o'er the woodlands wild, and mountains hoar;
Now at the holy hour of parting day
Wends thro' the long-ſtretch'd vale her thoughtleſs way;
Still liſtening to the tuneful melody
Of Nature's ever-changing minſtrelſy:
Where'er ſhe goes, whate'er her eye ſurveys,
In Nature's works ſhe reads her Maker's praiſe.

THEATRE.

A NEW comedy, from the pen of Mr. Reynolds, intitled LIFE, was performed at Covent Garden theatre, Nov. 1.

The principal characters were thus repreſented:—Primitive, Mr. Munden; Sir Harry, Mr. Lewis; Gabriel Lackbrain, Mr. Fawcett; Marchmont, Mr. Murray; Clifford, Mr. Farley; Librarian, Mr. Emery.—Mrs. Belmont, miſs Chapman; Mrs. Decoy, Mrs. St. Ledger; Roſa Marchmont, miſs Murray.

The ſcene is laid at an Engliſh watering-place, to which Mrs. Decoy, a lady whoſe character is ſufficiently unfolded in her name, repairs on a matrimonial ſpeculation. Here ſhe meets Lackbrain, a perſon in ſentiment and views perfectly congenial with her own, and by the means of a baſe, intriguing guardian, who is alſo the keeper of a raffling ſhop and a library, a marriage is effected between them. The progreſs of this deteſtable plan, its completion, and final expoſure, conſtitute one of the principal branches of the fable. Contraſted with it is the pure and diſintereſted paſſion of ſir Harry and Roſa Marchmont. The father of Roſa is labouring under the greateſt pecuniary diſtreſs; ſir Harry endeavours to relieve it; but the pride and delicacy of the Marchmonts will not ſuffer his aſſiſtance. At this moment Primitive, a wealthy nabob, and uncle of Lackbrain, arrives from India. He is delighted with the account which he has received of his nephew's marriage with a lady of rank and fortune, and who, in deteſtation of the vices of the town, has devoted herſelf to rural retirement. He flies to their cottage, fancying it another Arcadia, but finds it a ſcene of ſenſuality, diſſipation, and intrigue. In the courſe of this inquiry he becomes acquainted with Mrs. Belmont, an unhappy, friendleſs, perſecuted, but amiable woman. He ſympathiſes in her ſufferings, and offers his protection, though ignorant of her ſtory, which ſhe ſtudiouſly conceals. At length it appears that ſhe is his own daughter, whom he had abandoned in early life on account of her marriage with Marchmont, who had alſo forſaken her without cauſe after the birth of Roſa. A reconciliation

immediately takes place between theſe three parties. Roſa thus becomes the heir of Primitive, whoſe fortune was to have devolved upon Lackbrain, and her union with ſir Harry concludes the fable.

The moral of this comedy is juſt, and the ſentiment well calculated to amuſe the fancy and improve the heart; in the grave line of it, which is principally confined to the family of Marchmont, it is refined, intereſting, and, in ſome ſcenes, particularly that of the reconciliation, deeply affecting and impreſſive. In that of lighter caſt, judiciouſly blended with the former, it flows on in unaffected playfulneſs, no where breaking out into harſh and angry ſatire, or debaſed, by puns and quaint conceits, but glittering along in neat point and delicate irony through all the prevailing foibles of modern life and manners.

But, whatever may be its intrinſic merit, it is greatly indebted for its ſucceſs to the extraordinary exertions of the performers. Among thoſe who, as having parts of moſt intereſt, were moſt conſpicuous, were meſſrs. Fawcett, Lewis, and Munden, miſs Chapman, and miſs Murray.—The latter, in the delicate and elegant little character of Roſa, diſplayed judgement, delicacy, and feeling. This young lady alſo executed the air allotted to the part with taſte and ſweetneſs.

A MUSICAL drama, in three acts, called IL BONDOCANI, was performed at the ſame theatre, November 15, for the firſt time: it is the production of Mr. T. Dibdin.

The New Arabian Tales have ſupplied the author with the ground-work of his plot. The celebrated caliph, Haroun Alraſchid, is repreſented in queſt of adventures, and a 'knowledge of human dealing' throughout his capital city of Bagdat. Diſguiſed like a wandering Arab, he aſſumes the name of Il Bondocani, which, when pronounced, his principal officers having been informed of his intention, ſecures his perſon from any indignity. In the courſe of his rambles he meets with Chebib, an old decayed merchant, and having become enamoured of his daughter, propoſes to marry her. The offer is at firſt rejected by Chebib, who miſtakes the caliph in diſguiſe for a robber. A ſecondary-kind of intereſt ariſes from the confinement of a virtuous female in the dungeons of the haram for having allowed a man to enter the royal apartments. Her innocence is cleared up, and it appears that the perſon who viſited her was her own father, who, diſgraced by his ſovereign, found acceſs to his child, and endeavoured to reſcue her from confinement. The drama concludes with the union of the caliph and Darina, and of Abdalla, Chebib's ſon, with Camira, the perſecuted lady, who had been impriſoned in the dungeons of the haram.

The ſcenery is executed with every poſſible attention to the ſubject, and the view of Bagdat is uncommonly picturesque. No expence has been ſpared on the dreſſes and decorations, which have not been ſurpaſſed on any former occaſion in taſte, richneſs, and ſplendour.

The muſic is the joint compoſition of meſſrs. Morehead and Attwood. In the overture ſome movements are introduced which are diſtinguiſhed for genuine harmony, and the airs of Abdalla, Camira, and the caliph, are judiciouſly ſuited to the ſubject.

The drama was received with general applauſe.

SPECIMEN of the SONGS.

SONG—Miſs DIXON.

SWEET Innocence! where'er thy bleſt abode,
Whether in virgin's boſoms you reſide,
Or on the wings of ſaints aſcending ride,
Or with the ſleeping infant reſt,
Or in the manſions of the bleſt,
From me, of guilt, O ſtill avert the load!
Peace, on thy downy pinions, hither fly,
Let meek ey'd patience too be nigh,
So ſhall Camira ſcorn pale fear,
Nor heave a ground'leſs ſigh,
Nor ſhed a cauſeleſs tear.

SONG—Mr. TOWNSEND.

THUS, when the mariner, inclin'd to ſleep,
On a deceitful calm relies,
Sudden the awful thunder roars,
Sudden the forked light'ning flies,
And the loud ſtorms appals the diſtant ſhores.
Whirlwinds and cataracts unite,
To fill the wretch with dire affright,
And wanton o'er the boſom of the deep.

Or when the Indian, careleſs of his foes,
Marches ſecure beneath the foreſt's ſhade,
Too ſoon the adverſe ſhout he knows;
In vain he mixes in the ſtrife,
Tho' dear, the warrior ſells his life,
He falls, and dies with gore the hoſtile blade.

STATE PAPERS,

Relative to the Commencement of Negociations for Peace with France.

THIS important correſpondence is given in forty-ſeven articles or numbers, and we have in the following analyſis retained every part of it that is truly intereſting.

The three firſt articles are merely introductory to overtures, and the fourth contains M. Otto's full powers :—

'Bonaparte, firſt conſul of the French republic, in virtue of the 41ſt article of the conſtitution, gives to the citizen Otto, commiſſary of the government for the exchange of priſoners in England, power to propoſe, to conſent to, and to ſign, conformably to his inſtructions, a general armiſtice between the French republic and his majeſty the king of Great Britain.

(Signed)

By the firſt conſul, BONAPARTE.

The ſecretary of ſtate, H. B. MARET.'

'Done at Paris, at the palace of the Government, the 2d Fructidor, year 8 of the Republic.'

The 5th and 6th numbers, relate to the powers given by lord Grenville to commiſſioner George, to confer with citizen Otto, and minutes of his inſtructions to that effect are inſerted. Then follow the particulars of the conference, ſtating the demand of a naval armiſtice, with communications and explanatory remarks reſpecting the propoſed conferences at Luneville, the connection between this country and Auſtria, and the armiſtice ſigned by count St Julien. At length is brought forward the

PROJET.

1. There ſhall be a ſuſpenſion of hoſtilities between the fleets and armies of the French republic and thoſe of Great Britain.

2. The ſhips of war and merchant veſſels of each nation ſhall enjoy a free navigation, without being ſubject to any ſearch, and ſhall obſerve the uſage eſtabliſhed previous to the war.

3. All veſſels, of either nation, captured after the of Fructidor, ſhall be reſtored.

4. The places of Malta, Alexandria, Belleiſle, ſhall be aſſimilated to the places of Ulm, Philipſburgh, and Ingolſtadt; that is to ſay, all neutral or French veſſels ſhall have permiſſion freely to enter them, in order to furniſh them with proviſions.

5. The ſquadrons which blockade Breſt, Cadiz, Toulon, Fluſhing, ſhall return into their own harbours, or at leaſt ſhall keep out of ſight of the coaſt.

6. Three Engliſh officers ſhall be diſpatched, one directly to the admiral commanding in the Mediterranean, another to the commander of the ſquadron before Malta, the third to the commander of the blockade of Alexandria, to notify to them the preſent armiſtice, and to convey to them orders to conform themſelves thereunto. The ſaid officers ſhall paſs through France, in order the more expeditiouſly to arrive at their deſtination.

7. His catholic majeſty and the Batavian republic are included in the preſent armiſtice.

To this propoſal the following official anſwer was made :—

NOTE.

The underſigned has had the honour to lay before the king the official anſwer of the French government, which he received from M. Otto on the 4th inſtant; and alſo the projet of an armiſtice, communicated on the ſame day.

The ſpirit of that anſwer is unhappily but little conſonant with thoſe appearances of a conciliatory diſpoſition which had before been manifeſted. If it be really practicable in the preſent moment to reſtore permanent tranquillity to Europe, this object muſt be effected by very different means than thoſe of ſuch a controverſy as that paper is calculated to produce.

Some reply however is indiſpenſably neceſſary to the aſſertions there advanced, which, if now paſſed over, might be conſidered as admitted.

The articles which an Auſtrian officer, charged with no ſuch commiſſion, was perſuaded to ſign at Paris, do indeed appear to his majeſty little calculated to terminate the calamities of Europe.

But whatever be the tendency of the conditions which the French government has there ſpecified, there can be no pretence for repreſenting them as preliminaries concluded by Auſtria, or annulled by the intervention of his majeſty.

The engagements by which the courts of London and Vienna have agreed not to treat, except in concert with each other, were concluded before there was any queſ-

tion of these pretended preliminaries of peace. And the first intimations which his majesty received of their signature were accompanied by the express declarations of his ally, that they were wholly unauthorised, and must be considered as absolutely null.

The French government could indeed expect no other determination to be taken by his Imperial majesty. The want of all powers or instructions for such a treaty, on the part of the Austrian officer, was, at the time, distinctly notified by him to those who treated with him, and is declared even on the very face of the paper which he signed.

With respect, therefore, to the supposed demand of his majesty to be admitted to those negociations, nothing more is necessary to be said. The note delivered to M. de Thugut, by lord Minto, sufficiently explains the part which his majesty is really disposed to take in any negociation which may be regularly set on foot for general peace.

The king has always been persuaded that the result of such a negociation can alone effectually reestablish the tranquillity of Europe.

Experience has confirmed this opinion; and it is only from the conviction of its truth that his majesty has now been induced to wave his strong objections to the first proposal of a naval armistice, and to enter into the discussion of the conditions on which it may be established.

His majesty, judging from the experience of so many former negociations, considers such an armistice as in no degree likely either to expedite or to facilitate an arrangement of the direct interests of Great Britain and France.

He views it in no other light than as a temporary advantage which it is proposed to him to yield to his enemy, in order to prevent the renewal of continental hostilities, and thereby to contribute to the conclusion of a general peace.

And on this ground, notwithstanding the many disadvantages which he is sensible must result to this country from such a measure, he is resolved to give to his allies and to all Europe this new pledge of the sentiments by which he is actuated; provided that his enemies are disposed to regulate the conditions of such an armistice, as far as the nature of the case will allow, in conformity to the obvious and established principle of such arrangements.

This principle is, that the respective position of the two parties should remain, during the continuance of the armistice, such as it was at its commencement; and that neither of them should by its operation, acquire fresh advantages or new means of annoying his enemy, such as he could not otherwise obtain. The difficulty of doing this with the same precision, in the case of naval operations, as by land, has already been adverted to in a former note; and it constitutes a leading objection to the measure itself.

But the French projet, instead of attempting to remove or lessen these difficulties, departs at once, and in every article, from the principle itself, although expressly recognised and studiously maintained in the continental armistice, which is there referred to as the foundation and model of this transaction.

It is proposed, in effect, that the blockade of the naval ports and arsenals of the king's enemies should be raised; that they should be enabled to remove their fleets to any other stations, and to divide or to collect their force as they may judge most advantageous to their future plans; the importation both of provisions and of naval and military stores is to be wholly unrestrained. Even Malta and the ports of Egypt, though expressly stated to be now blockaded, are to be freely victualled, and for an unlimited period, in direct contradiction to the stipulations of the German armistice respecting Ulm and Ingolstadt, to which places it is nevertheless professed to assimilate them; and this government is expected to bind itself toward the allies of France, even before any reciprocal engagement can be received from them; while, at the same time, all mention of the king's allies is on the other hand totally omitted.

To a proposal so manifestly repugnant to justice and equality, and so injurious not only to his majesty's interests, but also to those of his allies, it cannot be expected that any motive should induce the king to accede.

The counter-projet, which the undersigned has the honour to transmit to M. Otto, contains regulations in this respect more nearly corresponding with that principle of equality on which alone his majesty can consent to treat.

Even those articles are, in many important points, and particularly in what relates to the actual stations of his majesty's squadrons, very far short of what his majesty might justly demand from a reference to the general principle above stated, from analogy, to the conditions of the

continental armiſtice, or from the relative ſituation of naval forces and a confidence is repoſed in the good faith of his enemies, which, although it can never be claimed in tranſactions between belligerent powers, his majeſty is nevertheleſs willing to hope he ſhall not find to have been miſplaced on the preſent occaſion.

If M. Otto is empowered to accede to theſe ſtipulations, a proper perſon will immediately be authoriſed to ſign them on his majeſty's part; if not, he is requeſted to tranſmit them, without delay, to his government.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

Downing-ſtreet, Sept. 7, 1800.

COUNTER PROJET.

It having been agreed that negociations for a general peace ſhall be immediately ſet on foot between the emperor of Germany, his Britannic majeſty, and the French republic, and an armiſtice having already been concluded between the forces of his Imperial majeſty and thoſe of the French republic, it is agreed that an armiſtice ſhall alſo take place between the forces of his Britannic majeſty and thoſe of the French republic, on the terms and in the manner following: that is to ſay—

1. All hoſtilities, both by ſea and land, between the forces of the two contracting parties, ſhall be ſuſpended, and ſhall not be renewed until after fourteen days notice given of the termination of the armiſtice. This notice, in ſo far as relates to the parts of Europe north of Cape St. Vincent, muſt be given by one of the two governments to the other, and is to be reckoned from the day in which the ſame ſhall be received by the government to whom it is given. In the Mediterranean, or other parts of the world, the notice muſt be given by the reſpective commanding officers. But in caſe of the renewal of hoſtilities between Auſtria and France, the armiſtice between Great Britain and France is likewiſe to be conſidered as terminated, ſo ſoon as ſuch renewal of hoſtilities ſhall be known to the officer commanding the Britiſh force; except only in ſo far as relates to prizes of merchant veſſels, which ſhall be regulated by the third article of this convention.

2. Orders ſhall immediately be ſent by the two governments to their officers in the different parts of the world, to conform themſelves to this agreement, ſea-paſſes ſhall be given to the ſhips which are to carry theſe orders; and his Britannic majeſty's officers to be ſent for that purpoſe through France, ſhall be furniſhed with the neceſſary paſſports and facilities to expedite their journey.

3. All prizes made in any part of the world during the continuation and operation of the armiſtice, by any officers having actually received due notice of this agreement, ſhall be reſtored; and generally, whether ſuch notice ſhall have been received or not, all prizes made in the Channel, or in the North Seas, after 12 days (to be reckoned from the exchange of the ratifications of this convention) ſhall be reſtored; and the ſame periods ſhall be allowed in this reſpect for the other parts of the world, as were ſtipulated by the 22d article of the preliminaries of the laſt peace.

4. Malta, and the maritime towns and ports of Egypt, ſhall be placed on the ſame footing as thoſe places which, though compriſed within the demarcation of the French army in Germany, are occupied by the Auſtrian troops; conſequently, nothing ſhall be admitted by ſea which can can give additional means of defence; and proviſions only for fourteen days at a time, in proportion to the conſumption, as it ſhall be aſcertained by commiſſaries to be named for the purpoſe, who ſhall have power to eſtabliſh the neceſſary regulations for giving effect to this ſtipulation, conformably to the principles of the 4th article of the convention concluded between the Auſtrian and French generals in Germany.

5. The blockade of Breſt, Toulon, and any other of the ports of France, by his majeſty's fleets, ſhall be diſcontinued; and all Britiſh ſhips ſhall be inſtructed not to interrupt or obſtruct the trade or navigation of any ſhips ſailing to or from the coaſts of France, except in the article of naval or military ſtores, which are not to be brought thither by ſea during the preſent armiſtice. None of the ſhips of war now ſtationed in the ſame ports reſpectively ſhall, before the renewal of hoſtilities, be removed to any other ſtation.

6. The allies of the two parties ſhall ſeverally be at liberty to accede to this armiſtice, if they ſo think fit; provided that they alſo engage to obſerve a like armiſtice, on conditions ſimilar to thoſe here ſpecified, toward ſuch of the allies on the other ſide as ſhall alſo accede to it.

The periods or terms to be fixed for the commencement of the armiſtice in the different quarters of the world, as with reſpect to each of the ſaid allies, are to be re-

gulated in conformity to the ſtipulations contained in the 3d article of this convention, as between Great Britain and France; and the ſaid periods or terms are to be reckoned from the day on which the acceſſion of ſuch power to the armiſtice ſhall have been duly notified by ſuch power to the party with whom it is at war. Such notification, duly authenticated by the government on whoſe part it is made, may either be tranſmitted by couriers or flags of truce, or through the channel of the two contracting parties, to each other reciprocally. The naval ports and arſenals of the allies of France are, during ſuch armiſtice, to be placed on the ſame footing with thoſe of France; and the notices which are to precede the renewal of hoſtilities, as well as all other matters relating to ſuch armiſtice, are to be regulated according to the terms of ſuch convention.

7. This convention ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications ſhall be exchanged within the term of ten days, or ſooner, if the ſame be practicable.

M. Otto replies to this note, that the principles they contain are ſo contrary to his inſtructions that he muſt wait for further communications from France; and on the 16th of September, another application is made by him, in which it is argued that the object of the French is to obtain advantages in a naval armiſtice equal to thoſe they loſe by the armiſtice in Germany. It is denied that the Engliſh projet grants France any advantages. To ſhew what it loſes by the continental truce, it repreſents Auſtria fortifying her fortreſſes, recruiting her armies, which ſhe may reſtore in ſix months, organizing Naples; and the Imperial armies recovering from their panic, while France might have been conquering. This alternative is offered: if England wiſhes for a ſeparate peace and a ſeparate negociation, her projet will be acceded to; but if ſhe deſires a general peace and a general negociation, the projet of France muſt be accepted. France announces her expectation, in caſe of an armiſtice, of being able to communicate with the iſlands of France and reunion—with her Weſt India colonies, and ſend a few thouſand men to Egypt. The forts of the emperor ſurrounded by the French daily require troops to replace thoſe who die. The permiſſion to victual the harbours of France is denied to be a favour, as food is got from the interior.

LORD GRENVILLE'S REPLY.

The note incloſed in M. Otto's letter of the 16th inſtant, has been laid before the king.

His majeſty has not ſeen in that paper any freſh ſuggeſtions on the ſubject of a naval armiſtice, which can at all vary the anſwer tranſmitted to M. Otto, on the 7th inſtant.

Neither his majeſty's known engagements to his allies, nor his deſire, ſo recently expreſſed, to contribute to the reſtoration of general tranquillity in Europe, will admit of his ſeparating his intereſts from thoſe of the powers with whom he is connected in the proſecution of the war; much leſs could he entertain the idea of conſenting, for ſuch a purpoſe, to any naval armiſtice; a meaſure which he has already declared to be totally inapplicable to a ſeparate diſcuſſion of the intereſts of Great Britain and France.

This propoſal being therefore one which the French government muſt have known that his majeſty could not accept, the ſuppoſed alternative profeſſed to be offered to his majeſty's choice, amounts to nothing more than to the ſimple renewal of a demand already rejected. No freſh inducement is ſtated which ſhould now diſpoſe his majeſty to conſent to thoſe conditions of armiſtice for joint negociation, which he had before conſidered as only inadmiſſible.

From information received ſince the laſt communications on this ſubject took place, his majeſty has obſerved with equal ſurpriſe and concern that the orders for giving notice of the termination of the continental armiſtice muſt actually have been diſpatched from Paris at the very time when the continuance of that armiſtice was propoſed to his majeſty as the condition and inducement for a maritime truce. And if, in addition to this circumſtance, his majeſty were to collect the preſent diſpoſitions of his enemies from the terms reſpecting his conduct and views with which their recent communications with his allies are filled, the concluſion muſt be extremely unfavourable to the exiſtence of any diſpoſition to conciliation.

His majeſty is however ſtill willing to wave all reference to theſe conſiderations, and to regulate his conduct by the motives which he has already explained. He ſtill looks, therefore, to a naval armiſtice, on ſuitable conditions, as to a ſacrifice which he may be induced to make in order to prevent the renewal of hoſtilities on the continent, and thereby to facilitate thoſe

joint negociations for general peace which might perhaps be accelerated by such an arrangement, although they are by no means necessarily dependent on it.

But when it is required that the extent of the sacrifice which his majesty is to make should be regulated neither by any fair standard of equality, nor by the ordinary rules which govern such transactions; when, without any reference to the interests of his own people, he is called upon to proportion his concessions to the exaggerated estimates which his enemies have formed of the benefits derived to his allies from the continental armistice; and when, on such grounds as these, conditions are insisted on which even these could not warrant, it becomes necessary to state distinctly that his majesty neither recognizes this principle, nor, if he did, could he agree in this application of it.

His majesty is not, indeed, called upon to appreciate the relative advantages which the prolongation of the continental armistice might really afford to each of the belligerent powers. But even of those circumstances which are enumerated by the French government as exclusively advantageous to Austria, many are evidently beneficial to both parties, and are so nearly to an equal extent.

If, during the interval of repose which has already elapsed, the Austrian armies have been reestablished, recruited, and reinforced, France has not been inattentive to the same measures. If the subsidies which his majesty has furnished are applied by his ally to the formation or transport of magazines, France has appropriated to similar purposes the rigorous contributions exacted from those countries which the existence of an armistice has not exempted from that calamity. The places in the rear of the Austrian army may have been repaired; but the position of the French armies has also been strengthened, and even the blockaded towns may perhaps suffer more from the increased length of the blockade, than they can profit by any internal measures for improving their defences.

Into other points of comparison his majesty forbears to enter. No part of the varied successes of the continental war appear to him to entitle his enemies to presume on any ascendant over the spirit of the Austrian armies.

But were the assertions of the French government, in these respects, better grounded than his majesty conceives them to be, the principle itself would still be inadmissible. It is impossible that his majesty can admit that compensation is to be demanded from him for the extent of those advantages, whatever they might really be, which his ally might derive from the continuance of the armistice; yet even such compensation is in a great degree offered by his majesty.—In consenting to a naval armistice on such terms as have already been acceded to on his majesty's part, he has made considerable sacrifices, and placed within the reach of his enemies great and obvious advantages, which their representation in vain endeavours to depreciate; he has thereby given to all Europe a strong pledge of his concern for the general welfare, and to his enemies a decided proof of pacific disposition.

But to yield to the present demand would be to sacrifice those means of present defence, and those pledges of future security, which have been acquired by such great and memorable efforts, and which he can never be expected to forego till the result of those negociations, in which he has declared his readiness to concur, shall have crowned his endeavours for the happiness of his people by the restoration of safe and honourable peace.

(Signed) GRENVILLE.

Downing-street, Sept. 20.

The following new Projet is submitted by M. Otto to Lord Grenville.

PROJET.

In consideration of its having been agred that negociations for a general peace shall be immediately opened between the French republic and its allies on one side, and his Imperial majesty, his Britannic majesty, and their allies, on the other side; and that the armistice which has already been concluded between the armies of the French republic and those of his Imperial majesty may be prolonged, if an equivalent armistice should be concluded between the forces of the French republic and those of his Britannic majesty, the two governments have agreed to conclude the said armistice upon the following conditions.

Article 1. All hostilities both by sea and land, between the two nations, shall be suspended, and shall not be renewed till after a month's notification prior to the end of the armistice. In all parts of the world, the armistice shall not be broken without the express order of the contracting governments; and hostilities shall not be renewed until a month after the notification which may have been given by the general or commanding officer of one of

the two nations to that of the other nation.

2. Orders ſhall be immediately tranſmitted by the two governments to the commanding officers in the ſeveral parts of the world, directing them to act in conformity with this convention. Paſſports ſhall be given to the perſons who ſhall carry out theſe orders; and the officers of his Britannic majeſty who ſhall travel through France for this purpoſe ſhall receive ſafe-conducts, and the neceſſary facilities for accelerating their journey.

3. All prizes made in any part of the world, during the continuance of the armiſtice, by any officer having actually received the notification of this convention, ſhall be reſtored. And generally (whether this notification ſhall have been made or not) all prizes made in the channel, or in the north ſeas, after twelve days, to be computed from the exchange of the ratifications of this convention, ſhall be reſtored; and, in regard to this object, the terms ſhall be fixed for the other parts of the world conformably to the ſtipulations of the 22d article of the preliminaries of the laſt peace; whence it reſults, that, computing from the day of the ſaid exchange, all trading veſſels of either nation ſhall have the power of putting out to ſea, and of navigating freely as before the war.

4. Malta and Egypt ſhall be aſſimilated to the places in Germany, which, although blockaded by the French army, have been permitted to enjoy the benefit of the continental armiſtice. Malta ſhall be furniſhed with proviſions for fifteen days at a time, at the rate of ten thouſand rations *per diem*. With regard to Egypt, ſix French frigates ſhall have the liberty of ſailing from Toulon, of unlading at Alexandria, and of returning without being ſearched, and without ſuffering any oppoſition during their paſſage, either from Engliſh ſhips, or from thoſe of the allies of Great Britain. An Engliſh officer of rank ſhall for this purpoſe embark on board one of the frigates, and ſhall travel through France on his way to Toulon.

5. The blockade of Breaſt, of Toulon, and of every other French port, ſhall be raiſed; and all Britiſh captains ſhall receive inſtructions not to interrupt the trade of any veſſel either entering therein, or going out thereof. No ſhip of the line, however, of two or three decks, actually at anchor in the ſaid ports, ſhall be at liberty to go out before the renewal of hoſtilities, for the purpoſe of changing its ſituation; but frigates, ſloops, and other ſmall ſhips of war, may freely go out and navigate, and, in the event of their meeting at ſea with ſhips belonging to his Britannic majeſty, they ſhall obſerve the cuſtoms eſtabliſhed before the war.

6. The land forces in the pay of his Britannic majeſty ſhall not have the power of diſembarking in any port of Italy, during the continuance of the preſent armiſtice.

7. The allies of France, namely, Spain, the Batavian republic, and Genoa, ſhall participate in the benefit of the preſent armiſtice. (If his Britannic majeſty inſiſt upon including his allies in the armiſtice, they ſhall enjoy the ſame advantages with thoſe of France.)

8. The preſent convention ſhall be ratified, and the ratifications ſhall be exchanged in the ſpace of ten days, or ſooner, if it ſhould be poſſible.

Lord Grenville's reply to M. Otto is next inſerted.

His lordſhip objects to the ſincerity of the French, that they gave notice of breaking the armiſtice in Germany, at the very moment they propoſed a naval armiſtice to England. His lordſhip ſays, no man can believe that the preſent war can be terminated ſincerely by a ſucceſſion of ſeparate treaties.

As the converſation between Mr. Hammond and citizen Otto, relates more to the ſentiments of the latter than to thoſe of the French government, we omit them, and proceed to the rupture of the overtures, which takes place in conſequence of the following letter:

Hereford-ſtreet, 16 Vendemiaire,
Year 9. (Oct. 8, 1800)

Sir,

I have received the letter which you did me the honour to addreſs to me this morning, requeſting that I would acquaint you in writing with the ſubſtance of the communication which I have been directed to make to you, the importance of the object to which it relates rendering you apprehenſive leſt you ſhould not completely have ſeized the meaning of the communication. I haſten, therefore, to tranſmit the ſubſtance of it to you.

The laſt notes which were exchanged, and ſeveral important events, which have completely changed the baſis upon which the propoſed armiſtice was to have been eſtabliſhed, having put an end to the negociation on foot, I had the honour to in-

form you, that notwithſtanding the circumſtances which are oppoſed to the concluſion of a maritime truce, the firſt conſul is invariably diſpoſed to receive any overtures relative to a ſeparate negociation between France and Great Britain, and that the mode of ſuch overture entirely depends upon the option of his majeſty: that when the king ſhall think proper to ſend for that purpoſe a plenipotentiary to Paris, I am authoriſed not only to conſent to it, but to deliver to him the neceſſary paſſport. That if, on the contrary, his majeſty ſhould prefer that the preliminary negociations ſhould be begun at London, ſpecial powers will be ſent to me for that purpoſe. I have the honour to be, &c.

Mr. Hammond. (Signed) OTTO.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, Oct. 9, 1800.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter of yeſterday's date; and I am directed in return to acquaint you, that his majeſty's government entirely agrees in the opinion there expreſſed, that all further diſcuſſion of the terms of a naval armiſtice would be ſuperfluous, as the only object which it was propoſed to his majeſty to ſecure by ſuch an arrangement has in the mean time been made the ground of ſeparate ſacrifices required from his ally.

With reſpect to the propoſal of opening negociations for a ſeparate peace, his majeſty, retaining always the ſincere deſire which he has uniformly expreſſed for the reſtoration of general tranquillity in Europe, muſt at the ſame time renew his former declarations of an invariable determination to execute with punctuality and good faith his engagements with his allies; and muſt therefore ſteadily decline to enter into any meaſures tending to ſeparate his intereſts from thoſe of the powers who ſhall continue to make common cauſe with him in the proſecution of the war.

I am, &c. &c.

M. Otto. (Signed) GEO. HAMMOND.

The appendix merely contains two letters from baron Thugut and lord Minto, with ſome official papers from general Kleber and his aid-de-camp, reſpecting the evacuation of Egypt.

BRITISH PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Tueſday, November 11.

THIS day his majeſty came to the houſe of peers, and being in his royal robes ſeated on the throne with the uſual ſolemnity, ſir Francis Moleyneux, uſher of the black rod, was ſent with a meſſage from his majeſty to the houſe of commons, commanding their attendance in the houſe of peers. The commons being come thither accordingly, his majeſty was pleaſed to make the following moſt gracious ſpeech;

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

'My tender concern for the welfare of my ſubjects, and a ſenſe of the difficulties with which the poorer claſſes particularly have to ſtruggle, from the preſent high price of proviſions, have induced me to call you together at an earlier period than I had otherwiſe intended. No object can be nearer my heart than that, by your care and wiſdom, all ſuch meaſures may be adopted as may, upon full conſideration, appear beſt calculated to alleviate this ſevere preſſure, and to prevent the danger of its recurrence, by promoting, as far as poſſible, the permanent extenſion and improvement of our agriculture.

'For the object of immediate relief, your attention will naturally be directed in the firſt inſtance, to the beſt mode of affording the earlieſt and moſt ample encouragement for the importation of all deſcriptions of grain from abroad.

'Such a ſupply, aided by the examples which you have ſet on former occaſions of attention to economy, and frugality in the conſumption of corn, is moſt likely to contribute to a reduction in the preſent high price, and to inſure, at the ſame time, the means of meeting the demands for the neceſſary conſumption of the year.

'The preſent circumſtances will alſo, I am perſuaded, render the ſtate of the laws reſpecting the commerce in the various articles of proviſion the object of your ſerious deliberations.

'If, on the reſult of that deliberation, it ſhall appear to you that the evil neceſſarily ariſing from unfavourable ſeaſons has been encreaſed by any undue combinations or fraudulent practices, for the ſake of adding unfairly to the price, you will feel an earneſt deſire of effectually preventing ſuch abuſes; but you will, I am ſure, be careful to diſtinguiſh any practice of this nature from that regular and long eſtabliſhed courſe of trade which experience has ſhewn to be indiſpenſible, in the preſent ſtate of

ſociety, for the ſupply of the markets and for the ſubſiſtence of my people.'

'You will have ſeen with concern the temporary diſturbances which have taken place in ſome parts of the kingdom. Thoſe malicious and diſaffected perſons, who cruelly take advantage of the preſent difficulties to excite any of my ſubjects to acts in violation of the laws and of the public peace, are in the preſent circumſtances doubly criminal, as ſuch proceedings muſt neceſſarily and immediately tend to encreaſe, in the higheſt degree, the evil complained of; while they, at the ſame time, endanger the permanent tranquillity of the country, on which the well being of the induſtrious claſſes of the community muſt always principally depend.

'The voluntary exertions which have on this occaſion been made for immediate repreſſion of theſe outrages, and in ſupport of the laws and public peace, are therefore entitled to my higheſt praiſe.

'Gentlemen of the Houſe of Commons,

'Under the circumſtances of the preſent meeting, I am deſirous of aſking of you ſuch ſupplies only as may be neceſſary for carrying on the public ſervice, till the parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland may conveniently be aſſembled. The eſtimates for that purpoſe will be laid before you; and I have no doubt of your readineſs to make ſuch proviſion as the public intereſts may appear to require.

'My Lords and Gentlemen,

I have directed copies to be laid before you of thoſe communications which have recently paſſed between me and the French government, reſpecting the commencement of negociations for peace. You will ſee in them freſh and ſtriking proofs of my earneſt deſire to contribute to the re-eſtabliſhment of general tranquillity. That deſire on my part has hitherto been unhappily fruſtrated by the determination of the enemy to enter only on a ſeparate negociation, in which it was impoſſible for me to engage, conſiſtently either with public faith, or with a due regard to the permanent ſecurity of Europe.

'My anxiety for the ſpeedy reſtoration of peace remains unaltered; and there will be no obſtacle nor delay on my part to the adoption of ſuch meaſures as may beſt tend to accelerate and promote that deſirable end, conſiſtently with the honour of this country, and the true intereſts of my people; but if the diſpoſition of our enemies ſhould continue to render this great object of all my wiſhes unattainable, without the ſacrifice of theſe eſſential conſiderations, on the maintenance of which all its advantages muſt depend, you will, I am confident, perſevere in affording me the ſame loyal and ſteady ſupport which I have experienced through the whole of this important conteſt, and which has, under the bleſſing of providence, enabled me, during a period of ſuch unexampled difficulty and calamity to all the ſurrounding nations, to maintain unimpaired the ſecurity and honour of theſe kingdoms.'

As ſoon as his majeſty had withdrawn, the ſpeech was read by the lord chancellor from the woolſack, and afterward by the clerk at the table.

The duke of Somerſet roſe to move the addreſs in a ſpeech of ſome length. His grace touched upon the various topics referred to in his majeſty's ſpeech. He ſaid that miniſters were entitled to praiſe in adviſing the calling of parliament to inveſtigate a ſubject which intereſted moſt nearly all ranks and deſcriptions of people, and on which no decided opinions ſhould be thrown out until proper information were laid before the houſe. With reſpect to the queſtion of war and attainment of peace, he thought that the beſt way to ſecure that bleſſing was to ſhew ourſelves prepared for a vigorous proſecution of the war, ſhould that alternative be neceſſary. His grace then moved the addreſs, which, as uſual, was little more than an echo of the ſpeech.

Lord Hobart ſeconded the addreſs, and ſpoke ably in ſupport of what fell from the noble duke.

Lord Holland, in a noble ſpeech of conſiderable length, diſplayed his uſual talent. He lamented the exiſting ſcarcity, and agreed with miniſters that too much attention ſhould not be paid to clamours againſt foreſtallers, regraters, and perſons accuſed of monopoly. The ſubject required the moſt ſerious conſideration, and the laws reviſion; but he contended that in a great degree the ſcarcity was to be attributed to the war, which, as well as to the calamitous circumſtances of the country in general, was to be attributed to the miſconduct of miniſters, and concluded by moving an amendment, the effect of which was to adviſe his majeſty to remove his preſent miniſters, as a firſt ſtep toward procuring the bleſſings of peace.

Lord Romney ſpoke at ſome length in reply to what fell from Lord Holland.

Lord Grenville ſpoke at a conſiderable length, and defended the conduct of miniſters with great ability. With reſpect to the important queſtion of ſcarcity, it was

one that deſerved the moſt ſerious conſideration, as well as ſpeedy enquiry, and ſuch it was the intention of miniſters to give it, and he doubted not but the happieſt effects would ariſe from the united exertions of parliament and the executive.

The houſe then divided on the amendment, for it 5; againſt it 50; majority 45.

Thurſday, November 13.

Lord Grenville preſented the papers relative to the late negociation with the French government, and ſaid, that as they were already printed and diſtributed at the door, any motion to have them printed would be unneceſſary.

His lordſhip then ſaid, that he ſhould to-morrow bring down papers to the houſe relative to the corn and proviſions of the country, at which time he intended to move for a ſelect committee to enquire into the preſent dearneſs of proviſions—adjourned.

Friday, November 14.

Lord Grenville, purſuant to his notice of yeſterday, laid before the houſe certain papers relative to the preſent high price of proviſions, which were ordered to be printed. His lordſhip then, after apologiſing for the abſence of a noble lord (Liverpool), who had in contemplation an object of conſiderable importance to ſubmit on the ſubject of the preſent ſcarcity, but which he truſted would be in time on Monday next, moved that a ſelect committee be appointed to take into conſideration the ſaid papers, and to enquire into the cauſes of the preſent high price of proviſions.

The motion was thereupon agreed to, and a committee, compoſed of 35 noblemen, accordingly appointed.

Lord Holland, after a few deſultory obſervations relative to the papers on the table, concerning the late negotiation with France, complained that miniſters had neglected to lay before the houſe papers of equal, if not ſuperior, magnitude with them; he meant thoſe concerning the treaty between the Auſtrian government and that of France, ſigned by St. Julien. His reaſon for ſtamping ſuch importance upon thoſe papers, proceeded from the peruſal of thoſe juſt laid on the table by the noble Lord himſelf, containing the laſt correſpondence between us and the French government. By theſe it appeared, that all further communication was abruptly broken off, and his majeſty's miniſters had reſolved on the continuance of this now calamitous and bloody war; and that they had reſolved on it, becauſe they would not make a ſeparate peace, and becauſe they would maintain inviolably their faith with their ally of Auſtria.

At ſo far a period back as laſt June, the houſe of Auſtria had in contemplation a ſeparate peace; for that purpoſe they ſent their miniſter, count St. Julien, to Paris, who negociated it, and ſigned, on the part of his court, the preliminaries which the councils of Auſtria afterward thought proper to reject. It is now notorious that theſe very preliminaries have again formed the baſis of another negotiation, and that this country is not to be included in its object. Where it is ſo evident then that we are left to carry on the war alone, by the faithleſſneſs of the cabinet of Vienna, why be ſo abſurd as to inſiſt on the poſition of not making a ſeparate peace? for whether Auſtria voluntarily, or againſt its will, makes a ſeparate peace with France, the effect to us will be the ſame; and we are no longer to conſider that ſtate, who either cannot or will not conſider us. He therefore moved, "That an addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, praying that he would be graciouſly pleaſed to order copies of the negotiation, and the papers relative thereto, which occurred at Paris, ſince the 1ſt of June 1800, between the court of Vienna and the French republic, relative to a peace between the two powers, to be laid before the houſe."

Lord Grenville expreſſed himſelf not at all ſurprized at the motion made by the noble lord, the object of which was, if poſſible, to reduce the impreſſion of indignation fixed in the public mind this day, at the peruſal of the papers now before the houſe, containing the recent correſpondence between France and this country, concerning a ſeparate peace: and that ſuch an attempt ſhould be made by that noble lord, ſtill leſs ſurpriſed him, the more eſpecially when he conſidered him as the only advocate the French government had in that houſe. The negotiation entered into, and the preliminaries ſigned by the count St. Julien, were not recogniſed by the Auſtrian cabinet, and therefore, as by that circumſtance they fell to the ground as waſte paper, any production of them he held futile; that miniſter had no ſuch powers as he executed, nor no ſuch authority as he aſſumed from his court. He ſhould therefore reſiſt the motion.

Lord Holland, in a ſpeech of ſome warmth, replied: he denied being the advocate of the French government, and inſiſted that the count St. Julien was duly authoriſed by his cabinet.

The motion, however, was negatived without a diviſion.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Tuesday, November 11,

The ſpeaker informed the houſe, that he had been in the houſe of peers, where his majeſty being ſeated on the throne, delivered a moſt gracious ſpeech to both houſes of parliament, which the ſpeaker accordingly read from the chair.

Sir John Wrotteſley ſaid, that nothing could induce him to propoſe an humble addreſs to his majeſty, were he not confident that every man in the country muſt approve of the circumſtance of aſſembling parliament at the preſent conjuncture, for the purpoſe of exerciſing its wiſdom for alleviating the diſtreſs of the poorer orders of the community. It was incumbent on every gentleman, he ſaid, to adopt frugality and economy in his family. Some gentlemen, he obſerved, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing a ſubſtantial and permanent ſyſtem of agriculture, had recommended an act of general incloſure.—This was a favourite topic with many perſons; but it required deep inveſtigation, and mature deliberation. That the country had in ſome meaſure the benefit of the general principle, he was ready to allow, as, during the laſt ſeſſion, not leſs than thirty-ſeven bills of private incloſure had paſſed, though for ſeven years previous, he believed, from the report on the ſubject, that not more than eighty-ſeven incloſure bills had paſſed the houſe of commons. He next adverted to that part of his majeſty's ſpeech which obſerved on the illegal conduct of perſons in ſome parts of the country, who, ſtimulated by others who had cruelly turned the preſent ſcarcity to the advantage of their machinations, had committed many acts of tumult, plunder, and diſorder. Theſe miſguided people, he ſaid, had inſulted and deſpoiled the property of many perſons, whoſe avarice they conceived had occaſioned the preſent dearneſs of proviſions. If any ſuch abuſes were practiſed, not within the cognizance of the exiſting laws, it may, he obſerved, be neceſſary to put them under legiſlative controul; but tumult and diſorder could never remedy, however it may augment the evil. It was with pleaſure he learned from his majeſty's ſpeech, that his anxiety for the return of peace remained unaltered. But as long as France was diſpoſed to attack the independence of other nations, and as long as that was her object with reſpect to this kingdom, ſo long was ſhe determined to prevent the return of general tranquility. With reſpect to the negociation, he ſhould make no obſervation until the papers were laid before the houſe, to which his majeſty's ſpeech alluded. He would, however, venture to aſſert that the conduct of miniſters on the occaſion was conſiſtent with good faith, the ſoundeſt policy, and the true intereſts of the country, which were the beſt mode of reſtoring tranquillity to Europe, and of maintaining, unimpaired, the ſecurity and welfare of theſe kingdoms. Sir John concluded by moving the addreſs, which was, as uſual, an echo of the ſpeech.

Mr. Dickenſon ſeconded the addreſs.

Sir F. Burdet Jones ſaid, he could not compliment adminiſtration on its profeſſions of being ſincere in its endeavours to obtain peace, after the exultations of Mr. Pitt, who conſidered it as a mark of divine favour that his lordſhip had failed in his embaſſy to Liſle. He could not compliment miniſters after their hoſtility to the overtures of Bonaparte, which hoſtility was calculated to extinguiſh every hope of tranquillity. With ſuch facts he could not —the people could not—neither could parliament pay any regard to the profeſſion or ſincerity of miniſters on the ſubject of peace. The ſeconder of the addreſs, he obſerved, did not attempt to explain the cauſe of the exiſting diſtreſs, though the cauſe, in his opinion, was obvious to the plaineſt capacity. For his part he would not ſecond any addreſs which had not for its object the removal of miniſters, as the firſt ſtep toward terminating the war, preventing the further effuſion of human blood, and reſtoring happineſs to the people. Seſſion after ſeſſion they amuſed themſelves, vaunting of the boundleſs reſources of the country; but at length, inſtead of ſuch exultation from the treaſury bench, parliament was now obliged to turn its eyes toward our own ſtarving and miſerable diſtreſſed condition.

He wiſhed the houſe to contemplate the career of miniſters; they ſubjugated Ireland; they have attacked the rights of their countrymen at home, and wreſted from the Eaſt India company their ſettlements abroad, Comformable to their ſyſtem, the Iriſh boroughs had been purchaſed with the money of the Iriſh people, and the treaſures of the country were exhauſted on American loyaliſts, French clergy, and emigrant nobility. Millions upon millions had been prodigally expended in ſubſidizing Auſtrians, Pruſſians, Ruſſians, Bavarians, and Neapolitans, and even in ſending troops to ſupport the Pope! Now the univerſal cry was for bread; to what then was the ſcarcity owing? To the enterpriſes of government, who ſtarved one part of the

country to corrupt the other. Still, however, are people called upon to perſiſt in the war by miniſters. But if parliament ſhould aſk him the cauſe of the preſent diſtreſs, he ſhould in reply ſay, it ſtares you in the face:—look to the treaſury bench.

The chancellor of the exchequer, after a ſhort exordium, ſaid he was happy to find there did not appear a diſpoſition to amend the words of the addreſs; indeed there could exiſt no ſerious oppoſition to a meaſure ſo direct and neceſſary. In reviewing his majeſty's ſpeech, there occurred to him two points which chiefly occupied the attention of the houſe, and thoſe points were, the unfortunate ſtate of the country, and the queſtion of peace and war. With regard to the firſt, what does his majeſty ſay? Does he not expreſs his tender concern for the welfare of his ſubjects, and a ſenſe of the difficulties the poorer claſſes of the community have to ſtruggle againſt? To alleviate whoſe ſufferings, and to afford an object of immediate relief, he recommends to parliament to turn their attention to the encouragement of importation of all kinds of grain from abroad; convinced that ſuch a ſupply, aided by economy and frugality at home, will anſwer every purpoſe of lowering the price of proviſions, and ultimately be the means of ſecuring the conſumption neceſſary for the country. With reſpect to the ſecond, his majeſty has directed that copies of the communications which have lately paſſed between this country and the government of France to be laid before you; but on the firſt of theſe points we are now only called upon to deliberate; to point out the cauſes which led to theſe difficulties, and to apply a remedy; that remedy is within our reach, is within our power; and we ought to adopt it.

We have had the ſatisfaction of ſeeing during the laſt year, that the importation of foreign grain has been of the beſt advantages to the country; then what may we not expect from a continuance of the ſame practice, at a time when our crops are more abundant than they were then; why undoubtedly the happieſt conſequences the moſt ſanguine well-wiſher of his country could expect. With reſpect to the adoption by all ranks of people, of meaſures of economy and frugality, a further degree of benefit is to reſult; but to point out a mode by which perſons are to be governed in their adoption of this principle, is out of the power of the legiſlature; it muſt reſult from their own experience. We all know that by adopting ſubſtitutes for leſſening the conſumption of grain in the years of 1795 and 1796, it produced the happieſt effects; we are now better ſkilled in providing thoſe ſubſtitutes, therefore greater utility is to be expected from them. Under thoſe impreſſions there is ſufficient reaſon for drawing a fair concluſion, that thoſe two means would be adequate to meet the preſent evil, and would anſwer every expectation formed in the minds of reaſonable men. He ſhould therefore propoſe to the houſe, when in a committee, to eſtimate the nature and extent of the bounties neceſſary to be given for the importation of grain; convinced, as he was, of the beneficial effects of ſuch a meaſure; both as to the gradual reduction of the price of wheat, and what was more important, inſuring a ſufficient ſupply for the conſumption of the enſuing year. It was alſo neceſſary to prevent in future the recurrence of an evil the community had now to deplore, and meaſures ſhould undoubtedly be taken to that effect, but gentlemen could not proceed with too much caution in ſo critical a caſe; there was nothing ſo dangerous as wild and abſtract theories, and it was impoſſible to reduce the philoſophy of the cloſet to the detection of evil practiſes in the diſtribution of the neceſſaries of life, and might be the means of ſtriking at the bottom of trade, and thus drive the country backward to that ſtate it ſtood in at five centuries ago. But he truſted the houſe would unanimouſly concur in the two meaſures propoſed to them that day, namely, importation and economy, and leave the reſt to a future period, when they would be better qualified by cool deliberation and maturer judgement, as he did not conceive it neceſſary, at the moment they were called on, to alleviate the ſufferings and calamities which afflicted the community, and to whom it was neceſſary to afford immediate relief, that they ſhould go into the inveſtigation of the cauſes which had led to thoſe calamities. The ſentiments which had fallen from an hon. baronet, as far as they applied to him, he ſhould not notice, but he could not help ſaying that ſuch language was highly improper, and could have no other tendency than to excite tumult and diſorder in the minds of the public. No man wiſhed the ſubject of the preſent war to be diſcuſſed more than he did; but it was remote from the queſtion before the houſe, and was only introduced for the purpoſe of raiſing popular clamour. The queſtion before the houſe was to give ſubſiſtence to the people, and not the queſtion of peace or war; nor

was it poſſible to deduce from the war the preſent high price of proviſions, conſequently ſhould not be coupled with the diſcuſſion they were then on. Here the right hon. gentleman entered into a long diſcuſſion of abſtruſe points, and endeavoured to ſhew that the additional taxes and the burthens of the ſtate in no wiſe contributed to the high price of corn, and contended that at the commencement of the war the price of grain was much higher than at a period ſome time afterwards; and that in the years 1796 and 1798 it fell conſiderably, and was at the moderate average of 48s. and 49s. the quarter, a time when the taxes, he ſaid, were felt in a greater degree than at any other period ſince the war began. This, he ſaid, was a fact, and worth a thouſand circuitous reaſons to prove the contrary; it muſt, therefore, appear that war had not the uniform tendency of making corn dear, and conſequently was a refutation of thoſe arguments which ſtated the war to be the ſole cauſe of the preſent high price of grain.

There was no judging, he ſaid, in the preſent ſtage of the buſineſs, whether the crop of the preſent year had fallen ſhort or not, nor was it neceſſary juſt now; yet there were facts which come within the knowledge of every member who heard him—facts which would prove that the preſent calamities were not wholly to be aſcribed to the malicious deſigns of monopolizers, if ſuch there were; nor were they at all connected with the conſequences of the war. Every one knew that the old ſtock of grain was long ſince exhauſted; every one knew that the new crop took place at an earlier period, and that the farmers, wiſhing to take advantage of the weather to get their ſeed into the ground, had been prevented from bringing the produce to market; yet it ſhould alſo be remembered that this produce, aſſiſted by importation, was to ſpread over a greater length of time than uſual, and conſequently the greateſt frugality ſhould be obſerved, and every ſubſtitute that could be adopted ſhould be provided. Notwithſtanding ſuch was the ſituation of the country, the means of effectual relief was within the power of the legiſlature; and though a ſudden fall in the markets was not to be expected, a reaſonable reduction in the price of corn would undoubtedly take place, unleſs the tranquillity of the country ſhould be interrupted by tumult or diſorder. To expect it as low as in a year of plenty was as prepoſterous as it was impoſſible. He ſhould therefore, without loſs of time, when the preſent queſtion of an addreſs of thanks to his majeſty was diſpoſed of, move the houſe to reſolve itſelf into a committee, in order to eſtimate what bounties ſhould be given on the importation of grain into the country; and to appoint a ſelect committee to enquire into the preſent cauſes of the high price of the neceſſaries of life, and to report, from time to time, ſuch remedies which in their wiſdom ſhall ſeem neceſſary, to afford the immediate relief required, and to prevent a ſimilar calamity in future. He could not ſit down without once more preſſing upon the houſe the importance of having recourſe to a ſyſtem of economy; and he wiſhed it to be ſtrongly impreſſed upon the minds of the people, that no meaſure was more likely to alleviate the preſſure of the times. Parochial relief too, ſhould be adminiſtered not ſo much in wheaten bread and in money, as in ſome wholeſome ſubſtitute to be judged of by the magiſtrate of the diſtrict; and he would wiſh it to be univerſally borne in mind, that every thing that has a tendency to reduce the conſumption of wheat, will be the means of obtaining the reduction of its preſent high price.

Mr. Sheridan ſaid, he had looked over his majeſty's ſpeech, and as far as it went to alleviate the diſtreſſes of the community, ſo far his acquieſcence went with it: and he truſted there would be but one opinion in the vote of thanks to his majeſty for calling his parliament at the preſent juncture—and that unanimity would pervade the whole houſe. It was their duty to provide bread for the people, and he hoped it would be done; it was alſo a duty to ſpeak the truth, and if the war was the cauſe of the preſent calamities, the people ought to know it. They ought alſo to know what diſpoſition had been manifeſted by the government of this country for peace, and if the terms propoſed to us by the enemy were ignominous, God forbid they ſhould be accepted—in that caſe the people muſt bear the preſſure of the times till better could be obtained. It was a duty they owed alſo to ſympathize in the diſtreſſes of the poor, and to afford them every aſſiſtance in their power; on that head he truſted there was but one opinion, one feeling in the houſe: and it was with great ſatisfaction, he ſaid, that he agreed in the vote of thanks to his majeſty for his complying with the wiſhes of the country in calling his parliament together. He did not, however, agree with the miniſter in affirming there was no connection between the war and the preſent calamitous ſtate of the country. There can be no doubt of

the connection, when it is conſidered that between four and 500,000 men, drawn from their labour, cauſing *five times* the conſumption of food they would otherwiſe do. [*A cry of hear! hear! from the treaſury bench.*] Mr. Sheridan continued, and ſaid, that that interruption ſhould not make him retract what he had ſaid. The conſumption, he affirmed, was five times greater than if thoſe perſons were following their occupations; but if the right hon. gentleman was of opinion that it was only twice as much, it was ſufficient to prove that the preſent ſcarcity was connected with the war, and thereby contradicting his own aſſertion. Beſide the articles of meat and bread, was there not large quantities of beer, ſpirits, &c. ſpread over in the moſt profuſe way to our armies abroad, encampments at home, barracks, garriſons, expeditions, &c. &c. Does not all this create a ſcarcity? Let the miniſter put theſe facts together, and then ſtand up and tell the houſe that the war is unconnected with the preſent calamities; and it will require more than his uſual ingenuity to make the houſe believe him. God forbid the war (ſaid Mr. Sheridan) ſhould not be the cauſe; if it was not, he would pronounce the country to be in the moſt deplorable and lamentable ſituation. But whether it was or not, was not the ſubject of the preſent enquiry; the queſtion was to relieve the people, and he ſhould therefore vote for the addreſs, as he thought the meeting of parliament had a tendency to that effect.

Mr. Nichols contended that the war was the ſole cauſe of all the calamities the country laboured under. He prayed miniſters to make peace, and all will be well. Next to the war, the cauſes were, the right hon. gentleman's ſolid ſyſtem of finance; the creation of paper currency. The people, he ſaid, called for relief; that relief was alone to be found in peace; any thing ſhort of that was adding mockery and inſult to their miſery.

Mr. Grey followed in a very eloquent ſpeech, in which he condemned the meaſures of miniſters, ſaid their whole tenor was that of miſconduct and incapacity; that inſtead of vigour and promptitude they exhibited nothing but negligence and imbecility; and that unleſs they were removed, the ſame ſyſtem would be continued until the country was loſt; for to their pernicious counſels was to be aſcribed all the miſeries which the people laboured under. He therefore could not think of ſupporting the vote of thanks as it now ſtood, but ſubmitted the following amendment to the houſe, namely, "That the latter part of the addreſs be left out, beginning with the words—this houſe do concur in his majeſty's declaration of his wiſh and anxiety for the reſtoration of peace."

Mr. Dundas, in a long reply, defended the conduct of adminiſtration.

At length the queſtion being put on Mr. Grey's amendment, it was negatived, and the motion of addreſs carried.

Mr. Pitt moved for leave to bring in bills to ſtop the diſtilleries, and to prevent the exportation of proviſions from this country.—Adjourned.

Wedneſday, Nov. 12.

Lord Sheffield moved, that there be laid before the houſe a return of all rice and grain imported from the 4th of January to the 4th of October, 1800.

The houſe having reſolved itſelf into a committee, on means for encouraging the importation of corn by bounty; Mr. Ryder moved, That it is the opinion of this committee, that the average price of corn be weekly aſcertained, and publiſhed in the London Gazette.

Sir W. Young declared himſelf hoſtile to the principle of granting bounties for importation of corn, as he conceived it was not only inadequate to the meaſure, but injurious to agriculture at home. [He was called to order.]

Mr. Pitt replied to, and refuted the objections of the hon. baronet.

Mr. Ryder explained, and his motion was then put and carried.

Mr. Ryder then moved, that the amount of the indemnification to be granted to the importers of foreign corn, be regulated by the average price of the market, on the third week after importation.

Mr. Hobhouſe wiſhed to extend the terms from three weeks to a month.

Mr. Ryder then moved the following reſolutions, which were ſeverally adopted, viz.

"That there be granted on every quarter of ſuperfine wheat, from the preſent period to the 1ſt of October, 1801, an adequate indemnification to make the purchaſe equal to the ſum of one hundred ſhillings.

"Item, on barley imported within the ſame period, an indemnification equal to forty five ſhillings.

"On fine wheat an indemnification to the amount of eighty ſhillings per quarter.

"On every quarter of rye imported within the ſame period, till the 1ſt of Oct. 1801, the average indemnification of ſixty five ſhillings.

"On every quarter of oats, a bounty

equal to the average indemnification of thirty ſhillings per quarter.

"On every hundred weight of Eaſt India rice, an average of thirty-two ſhillings.

"On rice imported from America, an average of thirty-five ſhillings per hundred weight."

The report was then brought up.

On the motion of the chancellor of the exchequer, a committee was appointed to enquire into the high price of proviſions.

The houſe then went into a committee on the expediency of granting a bounty on the importation of hops. Report ordered to be received to-morrow.

Monday, November 17,

The houſe being in a committee of ſupply, 120,000 men were voted to be employed in the marine ſervice, for three months, beginning on the 1ſt of January, 1801.

It was then reſolved, That it is the opinion of this committee that a ſum not exceeding 666,000l. be granted to his majeſty to enable him to pay the above 120,000 men for three months.

That a ſum not exceeding 684,000l. be likewiſe granted to his majeſty for victualling the ſame.

That the ſum of 1,080,000l. be granted for wear and tear of ſhipping for the ſame period.

That the ſum of 90,000l. be granted for ordnance and ſtores for the ſhips. The report was ordered to be brought up.

The bill to prevent the exportation of rice was read a third time and paſſed; as was alſo the bill for prohibiting the exportation of proviſions,

Wedneſday, November 19,

Mr. Abbot roſe to make his motion reſpecting the aſcertaining of the increaſe of population. He ſaid, one of his greateſt motives for taking that ſtep was to endeavour to find out why this country, hitherto an exporting country, had ceaſed to be ſo, and was obliged to have recourſe to its neighbours. This, he conceived, could only be accounted for by the increaſe of population. He obſerved, that under Edward III the inhabitants of England amounted to only 3,500,000. Under Eliſabeth they were augmented to 5,000,000; at the reſtoration of Charles II, to 6,000,000; at the revolution, from 6,500,000 to 7,000,000. In 1763, at the treaty of peace, they were ſuppoſed to be 1,500,000 or 2,000,000 more; and at this preſent period ſome perſons ſuppoſed they amounted to no more than 8,000,000, while others, who conſidered the enormous increaſe of population within theſe forty years, thought it could not amount to leſs than 11,000,000. Scotland had increaſed one-fourth ſince 1725, and though we could not give an exact ſtatement of the population of Ireland, we knew it was likewiſe very much augmented. He thought if the increaſe of the population of theſe kingdoms was properly aſcertained, it would tend to reduce the preſent ſcarcity, and he was grounded in that opinion by obſerving that other countries had followed the ſame meaſure. Holland had done it, Sweden in 1749, Spain twice in 1768 and 1787, and the United States in 1791. After ſtating, that by ſending to the clergy and the parochial officers, he thought it would be eaſy to aſcertain the number of families in Great Britain, as alſo the exact number of marriages up to the year 1764; obſerving that the returns ſhould include the number of agriculturiſts, he concluded by moving for leave to bring in a bill for the purpoſe of aſcertaining the increaſe of population.

Mr. Wilberforce ſeconded the motion; after which leave was given to bring in the bill.

Thurſday, November 20,

Mr. Sheridan moved that an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, begging him to direct the following papers to be laid before the houſe—

A copy of the articles ſigned by count St. Julien at Paris, and by him termed preliminaries of peace.

A copy of lord Minto's letter to the court of Vienna.

A copy of the anſwer of his majeſty the emperor of Germany to the court of London.

A copy of the papers ſigned by baron Thugut, and tranſmitted by lord Minto.

A copy of the paper in which the emperor ſays he will not treat without us.

A copy of the powers given to ſir Sidney Smith.

A copy of letters and extracts from Conſtantinople, relative to the evacuation of Egypt.

A copy of proclamations ſigned by ſir Sidney Smith, and diſtributed in the French army.

A copy of ſir Sidney Smith's account of the convention of El-Ariſch.

A copy of any new powers granted him to ratify any treaties.

A copy of ſir Sidney Smith's account of the failure of that treaty; as alſo a copy of the letters between gen. Kleber and him.

The queſtion on the 1ſt motion being put, Mr. Pitt, after adverting to the apparent zeal manifeſted by Mr. Sheridan for the public good in ſome inſtances, and what he alſo termed the magnanimity he ſhewed on two occaſions, by the ready warmth of his natural impulſe, which prompted him on thoſe occaſions to ſupport the government, [we ſuppoſe that hon. gentleman's aid to adminiſtration pending the mutiny was the moſt prominent of theſe occaſions alluded to] expreſſed himſelf not a little ſurpriſed to find him on that night ſo inconſiſtent with himſelf, and ſo much at variance with the ſentiments he expreſſed at the opening of the ſeſſion, when he ſtated his determination not to ſanction any meaſure, by the introduction of which the grand object for which parliament was aſſembled might in the ſmalleſt degree be incommoded; but as that hon. gentleman had thought fit to be ſo inconſiſtent, and move for papers, the irrelevancy and the inutility of which were ſo ſelf-evident, it was his reſolution to give him a conſiſtency he did not deſerve, without taking any credit to himſelf for the obligation; as he was convinced, before he ſat down, that he would perſuade him and the houſe of the truth of the poſitions, that the papers were irrevelant and uſeleſs.

In two ways only could the object of theſe papers apply; either that Egypt was the cauſe of the war, or that Auſtria was not worthy of faith with us. As to the firſt, he believed that point was argued ſufficiently well on a former night to refute that aſſertion; and as to the latter, he had it in his power flatly to deny the charge. Ever ſince the acceſſion of the chief conſul to power, the court of Vienna had manifeſted one uniform principle not to treat with France, but in conjunction with this country; that they did to the very hour of the battle of Marengo; that battle which, by one of thoſe viciſſitudes ever attendant upon war, placed a proud conqueror in poſſeſſion of a ſplendid victory. Yet that battle, that victory, never changed the ſentiments of that court; and ſuch was his idea of the ſtrength of the reſources of our auguſt ally, that were he called in to give advice to him, he would preſs him to continue the war, notwithſtanding that battle, and he would, from the cordial and ſolemn dictates of his heart, affirm to him, that nothing ſhort of a bold and decided oppoſition in arms could ſave his country or him, much leſs that of a ſeparate peace. But it had ſo happened, that the emperor wanted no ſuch impulſe, *for no later than this day his ſentiments have been received to that effect, under date of the 4th of this inſtant November, wherein his majeſty decidedly declares, he will enter into no negociation but in conjunction with the king of Great Britain.*

Mr. Pitt proceeded then to ſhow that this he hoped would ſatisfy the houſe on the remaining object which could poſſibly induce the hon. gentleman to move for thoſe papers, namely, the want of faith in the court of Vienna, which was directly contradicted by the diſpatches of this day, and therefore ſufficient to perſuade the houſe to reject the motion.

Mr. Sheridan entered into a ſtrong juſtification of his conduct in his motion on this occaſion, and in a reply of ſome warmth combated all the arguments offered by gentlemen on the other ſide of the houſe, wherein he paid ſome highly finiſhed compliments to ſir Sidney Smith, charged miniſters with forcing the emperor to continue the war, and concluded with obſerving, that if he had accuſed him of breach of faith, he was juſtified therein by his treaty of Campo Formio.

Mr. Dundas adverted to the papers on the table, relative to the breach of the convention of El Ariſch, and contended, that it would be a breach of honour and confidence to produce the papers called for.

The queſtion was put on the motion, and it being negatived without a diviſion, Mr. Sheridan withdrew the remainder.

Mr. Dundas preſented his majeſty's proclamation, whereby that houſe, together with the houſe of peers, were conſtituted part of the United Parliament.

Friday, Nov. 21, Mr. W. Dundas brought up the report of the committee on the petition from the lord provoſt and magiſtrates of Edinburgh, praying parliamentary aid to enable them to ſupport their poor.

Mr. Dundas ſaid, that the preſent ſcarcity prevailed to ſuch an extent in that city, that no leſs than four thouſand families, not hitherto ranked among the common poor of it, were ſo reduced as to be under the neceſſity of looking for additional aid, in order to ſupport them during the winter. He therefore moved for leave to bring in a bill to empower his majeſty to advance the ſum of 10,cool. by way of loan, to be paid off by means of a ceſs to be levied on the inhabitants at large of that city.—The motion was agreed to.

The bill for preventing the diſtillation of ſpirits from corn, was read a third time, and ordered to the lords.

[To be continued.]

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

[From the London Gazettes.]

Admiralty-office, Nov. 8.

Copy of a Letter from Vice-admirel lord Hugh Seymour, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. the Abergavenny, Port Royal Harbour, Jamaica, Auguſt 31.

Sir,

I HAVE very ſincere pleaſure in forwarding to you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, a letter which I have received from captain Milne, of his majeſty's ſhip Seine, deſcribing an action which does great honour to him, his officers, and ſhip's company, and which ended in the capture of the French republican frigate the Vengeance, a ſhip of very ſuperior force to that which he commanded.

Captain Milne has done ſo much juſtice to his officers and men by his report of their conduct on that occaſion, that I have only to offer my congratulations to their lordſhips upon the ſucceſs which attended their exertions, and to expreſs my hope that it will receive marks of their lordſhips favour proportioned to the ſatisfaction which they muſt derive from the event, which has brought forward the merit of thoſe engaged in it. I am, &c.

H. SEYMOUR.

His Majeſty's Ship Seine, off St. Domingo, Aug. 22.

My Lord,

I HAVE the ſatisfaction to acquaint your lordſhip, that on the morning of the 20th inſtant, I obſerved a ſhip on the ſtarboard tack ſtanding to the northward through the Mona paſſage; I ſoon perceived ſhe was an enemy, and made all ſail in chaſe, with very light breezes; the wind having come to the northward obliged her to tack, as ſhe could not weather Cape Raphael on the St. Domingo ſhore; ſhe then ſtood SSE and made all ſail; by this time it was near ſunſet, and I could perceive ſhe was a large frigate; it was near midnight before I could bring her to action, and then not ſo cloſe as I could wiſh, as he always bore up and kept at long ſhot; ſhe however did us conſiderable damage in our rigging and ſails, but to appearance he ſuffered equally; we ſeparated for ſome time, and I took that opportunity to get our rigging, &c. again in complete repair.

On the morning of the 25th, I had the pleaſure of bringing him to cloſe action; and after about an hour and a half hard fighting, an officer came out on her bowſprit, the only place he could be ſeen from, owing to the maſs of confuſion, by the loſs of her foremaſt, mizen-maſt, and main top-maſt having fallen on board, and ſaid they had ſtruck to the Britiſh flag. She was immediately taken poſſeſſion of, and proved to be the French frigate the Vengeance, citizen Pitot, capitaine de Vaiſſeau, commander, mounting twenty-eight eighteen-pounders on her main deck, ſixteen twelve pounders, and eight forty-two-pounders carronades on her quarter deck and forecaſtle, and braſs ſwivels on the gunwale, with ſhifting guns on the main and quarter decks. The weight of metal I have mentioned in French pounds. The behaviour of the officers and ſhip's company was ſuch as has always characterized the Britiſh ſeamen. To my firſt lieutenant Mr. Cheetham I am greatly indebted for his cool and ſteady behaviour, and for the amazing fire kept up from the main deck, which nothing could ſurpaſs. My ſecond lieutenant Mr. George Milne, fell fighting nobly about the middle of the action. In him his majeſty has loſt a valuable and as zealous an officer as any in the ſervice. To my third lieutenant Mr. Edevcair, (whom I mentioned on a former occaſion, when gunner of the Pique) I am equally indebted for his ſervices, as likewiſe Mr. Barclay, the maſter, and Mr. M'Donald, lieutenant of marines, who was taken down wounded, and came up again when dreſſed, but was obliged from a ſecond wound to be taken below. But, I am happy to ſtate, the life of this valuable officer will be ſaved to render further ſervices to his majeſty. The behaviour of the petty officers, ſeamen, and marines, was ſuch as does them the higheſt credit. The Vengeance is a very large frigate, five years old, and exactly the dimenſions of the Fiſgard in his majeſty's ſervice, and is the ſhip which had the action ſome time ſince with the American frigate the Conſtellation. Previous to her leaving Curacoa, ſhe had a large ſupply of ſeamen from Guadaloupe, and was every way completely found, and bound to France.

His majeſty's ſhip under my command has ſuffered much in her maſt and hull; ſails and rigging entirely cut to pieces. Your lordſhip will perceive the Vengeance is ſuperior in ſize, guns, and number of men to his majeſty's ſhip I have the ho-

nour to command; but nothing could withſtand the ſteady behaviour of this ſhip's crew.

I have the honour of incloſing a liſt of the killed and wounded. The loſs of the enemy has been very great, but I have not yet got a return.

I have the honour to be, &c.

DAVID MILNE.

Right hon. Lord Hugh Seymour, &c.

A Return of the killed and wounded on Board his Majeſty's Ship Seine, in the Action with the French Republic Frigate the Vengeance, Auguſt 21.

Killed—One officer, and 12 ſeamen.

Wounded—Three officers, 22 ſeamen, three marines, and one boy.

Name of officer killed—George Milne, ſecond lieutenant.

Names of officers wounded.—Archibald Macdonald, lieutenant of marines; Andrew Barclay, maſter; —— Horne, captain's clerk.

Admiralty-office, November 15.

Copy of a Letter from Vice-admiral Lord Keith, K. B. Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Ships and Veſſels in the Mediterranean, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated on Board the Foudroyant, at Gibraltar, the 29th ult.

Sir,

I HAVE juſt received a letter, of which the incloſed is a copy, from capt. Morris, acquainting me with the capture of a Spaniſh veſſel of war by the boats of the Phaeton, under circumſtances very highly creditable to lieutenant Beaufort, and the officers and people who were employed on the occaſion. I regret with him the loſs and injury which has been ſuſtained in the attack, but I anticipate with equal ſatiſfaction the approbation with which I am ſure their lordſhips will regard the gallantry that has been evinced in the execution of the enterprize.

I have the honour to be, &c.

KEITH.

Phaeton, off Malaga, Oct. 28.

My Lord,

I HAVE the honour to acquaint your lordſhip, that on the 25th inſtant, his majeſty's ſhip under my command chaſed a ſhip Polacre, which ſhewed Spaniſh colours, enſign and pendant, to an anchor under the fortreſs of Fangerolle, where a French privateer brig alſo took refuge; as the wind was on ſhore, and they were cloſe into the ſurf, and directly under a battery of five heavy guns, there was no proſpect of bringing them off then; the following night, the brig eſcaped to the weſtward, and the ſhip made two attempts for Malaga, but was driven back; laſt night the land breeze appearing favourable, I ſent the boats under the command of lieutenant Francis Beaufort, who at five o'clock this morning, in oppoſition to a very obſtinate reſiſtance on firſt boarding at the hatchways with muſketry, and from the riſing quarter-deck, with ſabres, got poſſeſſion, and brought her out; ſhe proves his moſt Catholic majeſty's armed ſhip the San Joſef, alias L'Aglies, mounting two twenty-four-pounders iron ordnance in the bow, two braſs eighteens for ſtern chaſe, four braſs twelves, and ſix four-pounders, and moſt completely found in ſmall arms of all kinds, commanded by an auxiliary officer of the navy, and manned with forty-nine ſeamen, (of which fifteen were abſent in her boat) and twenty-two ſoldiers as marines, employed as a packet, and carrying proviſions between Malaga and Milila: from the force of the ſhip, her ſtate of preparation, and ſituation with reſpect to the fort, alſo the unfortunate circumſtance of the launch, (from whoſe carronade much was expected in the plan for the attack) having not been able to keep up with the other boats, and being diſtant when they were diſcovered and fired upon by a French privateer ſchooner, that had come in unſeen by us in the night, and was placed to flank the ſhip, and gave the alarm, on which the barge and two cutters immediately pulled to the ſhip and boarded; I am convinced more determined bravery could not have been diſplayed than has been ſhewn by lieutenants Beaufort and Huiſh, lieutenant Duncan Campbell, of the marines, meſſrs. Hamilton and Stanton, midſhipmen, and Mr. Deagon, the gunner, and the boat's crew employed upon the ſervice; and it is with extreme concern I add, that one ſeaman was killed on coming alongſide, and that their very gallant leader (in whom I have ever found a moſt capable and zealous aſſiſtant) was firſt wounded in the head, and afterward received ſeveral ſlugs through his left arm and body; lieutenant Campbell received ſeveral ſlight ſabre wounds; Mr. Auguſtus Barrington Hamilton was ſhot, while in the boat, through the thigh, notwithſtanding which he boarded, and his conduct is highly ſpoken of; and J. Wells, a ſeaman, alſo was ſhot through the thigh;

the loſs of the enemy appears to be thirteen wounded, ſix badly, and ſome are ſuppoſed to have been wounded and driven overboard.

I give your lordſhip the detail of this ſervice, feeling it incumbent on me ſo to do in juſtice to the parties employed upon it, humbly hoping that Mr. Beaufort's conduct and wounds will entitle him to the protection given in the preſent war to officers of diſtinguiſhed merit; and I regret exceedingly that Mr. Hamilton wants ſome conſiderable part of his ſervitude, as he is of an age, and in all other reſpects, well qualified for a lieutenant.

Toward day-light, the ſignal being made to me that our people were in full poſſeſſion of the prize, I chaſed a veſſel that had paſſed us an hour before, and brought her to, under a battery, in Cape Moleno. She proves a light polacre, from Ceuta bound for Malaga. Afterward, running down to pick up our boats and people, we were carried ſo far to leeward, that the French ſchooner (which we had not ſeen from the ſhip) paſſed to windward along ſhore to Malaga, quite out of our reach.

I have the honour to be, &c.

JAMES N. MORRIS.

Vice-admiral Lord Keith, &c.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

THREE ſloops, three brigs, and five luggers, by the boats of the Montague and Magnificent.

Three brigs, by the Excellent.

Renard privateer, two guns, by the Nile lugger.

A brig and two ſloops, by the Montague.

San Fernando privateer, 12 guns, by the Argo.

Le Diable privateer, 16 guns, by the Thames.

La Venus frigate, 32 guns, by the Indefatigable and Fiſguard.

Spaniſh lugger, two guns, by the Childers.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

OCTOBER 31.

A FIRE broke out at Mr. Smith's, a ſhoemaker, cloſe to Aldgate-pump, at nine o'clock, which in a ſhort time conſumed his houſe, and three others adjoining; namely, Shuter's toy-ſhop, Jones, the optician, and Hardcaſtle, the leather-ſeller. They were wooden houſes, and burnt with great rapidity. At the toy-ſhop, a lady ſuddenly finding the fire burning through to the houſe in which ſhe was, and ſuppoſing there was no eſcape by the ſtaircaſe, threw herſelf out of the two pair of ſtairs window. By the fall her arms were broken, and ſhe was otherwiſe much bruiſed. She was carried to the hoſpital. No other perſonal accident happened till about eleven o'clock, when the fronts of three of the houſes fell forward on the ſtreet, and cruſhed ſome perſons in the ruins. Two of the firemen were dug out before twelve. A vaſt crowd collected from all parts, which the Aldgate aſſociation, with great activity, kept at a proper diſtance, protecting the property of the unfortunate ſufferers. It was occaſioned by the making of fireworks againſt the 5th of November.

NOVEMBER 6.

Yeſterday, the lord-mayor held his laſt court of common-council; preſent, beſide his lordſhip, twelve aldermen, Mr. recorder, the ſheriffs, and a conſiderable number of commoners. His lordſhip, after the proceedings of the laſt court being read, introduced his majeſty's anſwer to the addreſs and petition preſented at St. James', on the 15th of October laſt, which being read, Mr. Powell moved that it be entered on the journals of this court.

Mr. alderman Hibbert could not help ſaying he was extremely hurt at the coolneſs of his majeſty's anſwer.

Mr. deputy Leekey, Mr. Kemble, and others, thought it very indelicate to make any comments upon his majeſty's anſwer, and that it was their opinion the worthy alderman was out of order.

Mr alderman Hibbert replied, and ſaid he muſt claim the privilege of giving his ſentiments—if he was wrong, he wiſhed to be called to order, but he would ſay he was ſorry to find, on preſenting an addreſs of ſo much conſequence, an anſwer ſo unkind, containing no compaſſion or commiſeration for the miſeries of the poorer ſort of his ſubjects.

Mr. Waithman, after ſpeaking ſome time on the ſubject, begged leave to move, by way of amendment, that the following words be added, viz. 'at the ſame time this court are of opinion, that whoever adviſed the anſwer received from his majeſty, to the humble addreſs and petition of the

lord-mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city of London, in common-council aſſembled, upon ſo preſſing an emergency, have proved themſelves deficient in duty to his majeſty, diſreſpectful to this court, and regardleſs of the extreme ſufferings and diſtreſs of his majeſty's ſubjects.'

This motion was ſeconded by Mr. deputy Goodbehere.

Mr. Powell ſaid, the anſwer was nothing more than an echo of the prayer of the petition, and ſhould oppoſe any other motion than what was uſual, which is, that it be entered on the city records.

Several members having delivered their ſentiments, the recorder was called upon to give his opinion reſpecting the propriety of debating upon the ſubject; he ſaid, that when any queſtion was moved and ſeconded, the court had a right to debate on it. The debate then continued for a great length of time, and the queſtion as amended being called for and put, was negatived.

The previous queſtion being put, for the anſwer to be recorded on the journals of this city, was carried, and agreed to.

Yeſterday was preſented to his majeſty, at the levee by the marquis of Saliſbury, a book printed on the firſt paper which has ever been made from ſtraw alone, containing a ſuccinct but general hiſtorical account of the ſubſtances which have been uſed to deſcribe events, and to convey ideas, from the earlieſt date to the invention of paper, together with ſome looſe ſheets of ſtraw paper, of an elegant tranſparent texture, which poſſeſs all the qualities of the fineſt writing paper fabricated from rags.

The looſe ſheets indubitably demonſtrate that paper may be made from ſtraw alone in the higheſt ſtate of perfection. It is regarded as a valuable diſcovery, and of great national importance; and the ingenious inventor highly deſerves the public eſteem and ſupport.

NOVEMBER 8.

On Wedneſday, the recorder made his report to his majeſty of the priſoners under ſentence of death in Newgate, convicted in September ſeſſions:—When William Hatton, Thomas Douglas Newman, John Robinſon, John Price, and Thomas Chalfont, were ordered for execution on Wedneſday next.

NOVEMBER 10.

The London Gazette of Nov. 8, contains a proclamation by the king, ſtating his majeſty's declaration, that it is expedient that the lords and commons of the preſent parliament of Great Britain ſhould be the members of the reſpective houſes of the firſt parliament of the United kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, on the part of Great Britain; and commanding the ſaid lords and commons to give their attendance accordingly, on the 22d of January 1801.

A tremendous ſtorm of wind and rain came on yeſterday noon, which greatly alarmed the inhabitants of London and Weſtminſter, and did much miſchief. In St. James'-park, two of the trees in the great mall were torn up by the roots. In the Strand, Somerſet-houſe felt its effects, a part of the roof of the houſe of Mr. Price, hair-dreſſer, and of the public-houſe adjoining, were ſtripped; in Guildford-ſtreet, near the Foundling-hoſpital, part of the ſtone parapets of one of the houſes was forced away; in Gray's and Lincoln's-inns the attic ſtories of the chambers were unroofed; part of the coping of Chriſt-church, Newgate-ſtreet, was forced into the veſtry during divine ſervice. In St. James'-church, Clerkenwell, the miniſter, after the ſermon, offered up a prayer to the Almighty to abate the violence of the ſtorm. It laſted about twenty minutes. Scarcely a houſe in London has eſcaped injury. Tiles and chimnies fell in every ſtreet. The pavement was waſhed quite white, and dried in a few minutes by the wind. Much damage has been done at ſea and in the country.

NOVEMBER 20.

It is with concern we ſtate the loſs of the Marlborough, of ſeventy-four guns, captain Sotherby, on the 4th inſtant, near Belleiſle. She was cruiſing in company with the Captain, of ſeventy-four guns, and ſtruck on a reef of ſunken rocks. After remaining on them for ſeveral hours, ſhe got off by throwing ſome of her guns overboard, and run into deep water, where ſhe anchored; but the water gained ſo faſt upon her, that the remainder of the guns were thrown overboard, and the maſt cut away. The water ſtill continuing to gain on the pumps, it was rendered indiſpenſably neceſſary to quit the ſhip, in order to preſerve the lives of the crew. Signals were accordingly made to the captain, who bore down and took out the crew. The ſhip, it is ſuppoſed, ſunk ſoon afterward.

NOVEMBER 25.

The report of the committee to the houſe of commons yeſterday, ſtates the failure of the harveſt at one fourth, on an average, over the kingdom. It recommends economy, and aſſerts, that the deficiency of a fourth has been ſupplied by ſubſtitutes

and economy, and that the importation has added another fourth beyond the average crop. The report is very ſhort and ſummary. It gives little more than an opinion.

NOVEMBER 27.

At a common-council holden in the chamber of the Guildhall, of the city of London, on Nov. 25, 1800; it was

Reſolved unanimouſly, That the thanks of this court be given to Harvey Chriſtian Combe, eſq. late lord-mayor, for the ſplendid hoſpitality with which he ſupported the dignity, and for the firmneſs and fidelity with which he diſcharged the duties of the important office which he was appointed to fill by the impartial ſuffrages of his electors; for the eaſy acceſs, which he afforded to every man who ſought aſſiſtance from his counſel, or protection from his authority; for his ſteadineſs in aſſerting the rights, and his activity in promoting the intereſts of this great metropolis; for his temperate, manly, and upright conduct in parliament; for his attachment to the pure and genuine principles of the Engliſh conſtitution; and, above all, for that rare, but ſalutary and noble union of wiſdom with courage, and of juſtice with clemency, which he diſplayed during the late diſturbances from the ſcarcity of corn, and for which his name deſerves to be recorded in the annals of our hiſtory, as the friend of the poor, the guide of the ignorant, the bloodleſs ſubduer of the raſh and tumultuous, the guardian of the peace, property, and lives of his fellow citizens, the preſerver of the general tranquillity of the kingdom, and a magiſtrate who conſecrated the legal exerciſe of his power by the moſt amiable feelings of humanity. RIX.

BIRTHS.

LADY of the hon. colonel Vaughan, a ſon.

Lady Bantry, of St. Finbarry, Cork, a ſon.

Lady of Thomas Robertſon, eſq. of Iſlington, a ſon.

MARRIAGES.

LORD viſcount Corry, to lady Juliana Butler, ſecond daughter of the earl of Carrick.

The hon. Mr. York, ſon of the biſhop of Ely, to miſs Cocks, eldeſt daughter of Mr. Cocks, banker, Charing-croſs.

Thomas Garland Murray, eſq. to miſs Eliſabeth Hamilton, daughter of William Hamilton, eſq. of Blackheath.

John Brickwood, eſq. of Croydon, to miſs Bowyer, of Coles.

Arthur William Gregory, eſq. to miſs Mariana Grote, of Glouceſter-place.

DEATHS.

GEORGE Marſh, eſq. a commiſſioner of the navy.

At Weſt Keal, Lincolnſhire, Eliſabeth Shaw, at the age of 117 years. She remembered the revolution in 1688, and retained her ſenſes to the laſt hour of her life.

Rev. ſir John Hay Dalmahoy, bart.

Francis Biddulph, eſq. of Charing-croſs, banker.

Lieutenant-colonel William Montgomery, M. P.

Lord Northwick.

Lord William Seymour, aged 81 years.

Hon. captain Paget Bayly.

Charles Hamerton, eſq. alderman of Bread-ſtreet-ward.

Samuel Tyſſen, F. R. S. and S. A. of Narborough-hall, Norfolk.

William Gilbert Marklew, eſq. of Bedale, Yorkſhire, aged 94.

Mrs. Mitchell, aged 72, mother to admiral Mitchell.

Dr. Cruden, of Spital-ſquare.

Mrs. Rebecca Cooper, of Hackney, aged 89.

Major-general Lewis.

Lord Rancliffe.

Right hon. dowager lady Reay.

Marquis de Bouille.

Sir Ernеſt Gordon, bart.

Hon. lieutenant A. J. Stewart.

Mrs. Iſted, of Ecton, Northamptonſhire, aged 80.

Hon. Stephen Fox, ſon of lord Holland.

PROMOTIONS.

LORD Whitworth—Privy counſellor.

Sir Richard Carr Glyn, of Gaunts, in Dorſet, late lord-mayor—Robert Kingſmill, admiral of the blue—Robert John Buxton, of Shadwell-lodge, Norfolk—William Elford, of Bickham, Devon—Nathaniel Holland, of Wittenham, Berks—Francis Millman, of Levaton, Devon, phyſician to his majeſty's houſehold—Robert Peel, of Drayton Manor, Stafford—Walter Stirling, of Faſkine, Lanark, banker—Baronets of Great Britain.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

OCTOBER 28.

W. MAITLAND, Newcaſtle-under-Lyne, Staffordſhire, victualler.

J. Lambert, St. George's Creſcent, St. George's-fields, flour-factor.

W. Wootton, Rugeley, Staffordſhire, hatter.

H. R. Williams, St. Agnes le-Clare, St. Luke, brewer.

R. Warner, George-yard, factor.

G. Pickeringill, Clement's-lane, merchant.

R. J. Buddicom, Liverpool, merchant.

NOVEMBER 1.

T. Harris, Prince's-ſtreet, Prince's-ſquare, vintner.

W. Denne, Canterbury, draper.

R. M. Whiteſide, Cheſtnut-ſtreet, in Hertford, grocer.

R. Barber, Mancheſter, innkeeper.

W. Reid, Stockport, Cheſter, draper.

G. Bowes, Batterſea, Surry, baker.

J. Nelſon, Hereford, haberdaſher.

R. Miniſie, Honiton, in Devonſhire, baker.

W. Martin, Hommerton, broker.

T. Haymes, Duke-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, haberdaſher.

W. Slader, Whitecroſs-ſtreet, corn-chandler.

NOVEMBER 4.

T. Pilgrim, Heekingham, Lincolnſhire, ſcrivener.

W. Brade, and W. Storey, Preſton, Lancaſhire, joiners.

R. Dickſon, Long-acre, coach-maker.

W. Lowe and W. Brooks, Pemberton, Lancaſhire, fuſtian-manufacturers.

J. Friedeberg, and B. Friedeberg, Sun-ſtreet, Biſhopſgate without, merchants.

J. Grimſhaw, Mancheſter, manufacturer.

C. Bedford, Briſtol, linen-merchant.

J. Tattam, Aſhley, in Worceſterſhire, dealer.

T. Rowſell, Wandſworth, Surry, money-ſcrivener

C. A. Delpini, St. Martin-ſtreet, Weſtminſter.

R. Marſon, Aldgate, tavern-keeper.

J. Haſlam, Milk-ſtreet, Mancheſter, warehouſeman.

NOVEMBER 8.

M. Martin, Baſingſtoke, draper.

J. Heſeltine, Richmond, in Yorkſhire, dealer.

R. Dixon, Long-acre, coach-maker.

J. Groom, Brentford, baker.

T. Lewis, Abingdon, Berks, hemp-manufacturer.

J. Seymour, Poole, joiner.

D. Matthews, Baſingſtoke, grocer.

J. Lack, South Creak, Norfolk, ſhop-keeper.

J. Niblock, and G. Burgeſs, Briſtol, linen-drapers.

NOVEMBER 11.

W. Thomſon, Preſton, in Lancaſhire, hawker.

W. Maſſey, Fenchurch-ſtreet, ſchool-maſter.

T. Murrills, Tottenham, victualler.

W. Moore, Richmond, Surry, ſtaple-keeper.

R. Ewing Sims, Liverpool, merchant.

NOVEMBER 15.

C. Tomkins, Kenſington, printſeller.

A. Robertſon, Caſtle-court, Birchin-lane, merchant.

J. Burnet, and J. Ferguſon, Preſton, Lancaſhire, linen-drapers.

S. Hartley, Graffington, in Yorkſhire, mercer.

S. Malcolm, Old Broad-ſtreet, broker.

R. Wood, Baſinghall-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

J. Carleſs, Bow-lane, Cheapſide, warehouſeman.

T. Kirkpatrick, Church-paſſage, Cateaton-ſtreet, merchant.

J. Hudſon, Preſton, Lancaſhire, manufacturer.

T. Bowles, Friday-ſtreet, warehouſeman.

J. Dobie, Swallow-ſtreet, victualler.

R. Bevan, St. James'-ſtreet, breeches-maker.

J. Blew, Iſlington-road, victualler.

H. Bird, Wine-ſtreet, Briſtol, tea-dealer.

R. Edwards, Tooley-ſtreet, in South-wark, brandy-merchant.

NOVEMBER 18.

H. White, Eveſham, in Worceſterſhire, currier.

W. Chapman, Devonſhire-ſtreet, ſhip-inſurance-broker.

R. Jackſon, and J. Hankin, Oxford-ſtreet, rectifiers.

M. Levy, Stamford-ſtreet, Black Friars-road, merchant.

NOVEMBER 22.

T. Harriſon, and J. B. Pritchard, Liverpool, potſellers.

W. Smart, Birmingham, currier.

T. Panton, Weſt Smithfield, woollen-draper.

I. Levy, Lambeth-road, Surry, merchant.

J. Bebbington, City-road, umbrella-maker.

J. A. Bonney, Percy-ſtreet, St. Pancras, money-ſcrivener.

C. Hall, Brick-lane, Whitechapel, ribband-weaver.

O. F. Stocken the younger, Parſons-green, Fulham, coal-merchant.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

NEW Annual Regiſter, 1799, 14s. boards.

Fowle's Treatiſe on the Fevers of the Weſt Indies, 2s 6d.

Parry on the Practicability of producing Fine Clothing Wool in the Britiſh Iſles, 4s.

Roland's (Madam) Eſſaye, Correſpondence, &c. 8vo, 8s.

Mackenſie's Sermons, 8vo, 7s.

Waters' Sermons, 8vo, 7s.

Girdler's Obſervations on Foreſtalling, &c. 8vo, 7s.

Medical Pupil's Guide through London, 12mo, 4s.

Baron of Lauderbrooke, 12mo, 3s 6d.

Sanderſon's Original Poems, 12mo, 4s.

Hull's Eſſay on Phlegmatia Dolens, 8vo, 7s 6d.

Illingworth's Inquiry into the Laws reſpecting Foreſtalling, &c. 8vo, 8s.

Bird's Laws reſpecting Tithes, 8vo, 2s 6d, ſewed.

Dobbs' Conciſe View of the Sacred Predictions, 8vo, 7s.

Dobbs' Summary of Univerſal Hiſtory, 8 vol. 12mo, 1l 8s, ſewed.

Smith's (Charlotte) Letters of a Solitary Wanderer, 3 vol. 12mo, 15s.

Wilmore Caſtle, an Opera, 1s 6d.

Daughter of Adoption, 4 vol. 18s.

Obi, or Hiſtory of Three-fingered Jack, 12mo, 4s 6d.

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Robinſon's (Mrs.) Lyrical Tales, ſmall 8vo, 6s.

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Hill's Obſervations on the Uſe of Oxygen, Part 1, 4to, 7s 6d, ſewed.

Hiſtorical Account of the Subſtances which have been uſed to deſcribe Events, 1l 1s, boards.

Infernal Quixote, 4 vol. 1l.

Virginia, an Opera, 2s.

Erratics, by a Sailor, 3s 6d, ſewed.

Roberts' Indian Gloſſary, 3s 6d, ſewed.

Aluredus, Knight of Malta, 3 vol. 13s 6d.

Le Grange's Manual of Chymiſtry, 2 vol. 8vo, 1l 1s.

Rival Mothers, 4 vol. 1l 2s.

Smith's Phyſicians Portable Library, 8vo, 6s.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

November 15, 1800.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	130	1	70	4	64	9	44	3
Surry	127	8	61	0	69	6	42	9
Hertford	121	8	60	0	67	0	36	10
Bedford	135	3	104	4	71	6	39	0
Huntingdon	136	3	——		78	8	31	4
Northampton	124	4	88	0	75	0	35	4
Rutland	125	0	——		77	6	39	0
Leiceſter	113	1	108	2	79	7	42	4
Nottingham	122	10	77	6	74	0	42	0
Derby	121	8	——		77	8	42	4
Stafford	122	3	——		74	11	46	1
Salop	119	11	90	8	80	5	42	0
Hereford	124	9	75	8	71	11	42	1
Worceſter	145	5	80	0	79	6	44	4
Warwick	140	7	——		83	5	48	8
Wilts	132	8	60	0	62	6	37	0
Berks	133	8	——		66	0	40	6
Oxford	126	2	——		58	11	39	4
Bucks	124	4	——		65	10	37	8
Brecon	105	8	——		67	3	35	6
Montgomery	116	10	92	8	73	9	40	0
Radnor	116	2	——		67	4	35	2

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	122	4	59	6	66	4	43	10
Kent	123	10	66	0	59	6	37	6
Suſſex	112	8	——		60	0	38	2
Suffolk	110	11	80	2	55	6	39	10
Cambridge	117	8	68	6	54	10	24	2
Norfolk	101	10	68	0	54	11	40	2
Lincoln	109	10	80	0	66	10	32	8
York	98	10	67	5	61	0	35	8
Durham	109	7	73	11	58	5	37	0
Northumberland	104	8	67	8	55	4	35	3
Cumberland	114	0	79	2	70	1	47	9
Weſtmorland	123	11	97	2	64	6	47	10
Lancaſter	120	0	——		70	3	47	9
Cheſter	112	2	——		——		51	10
Flint	109	9	81	2	87	10	40	5
Denbigh	121	8	——		82	5	40	11
Angleſea	None bought for Sale						——	
Carnarvon	101	4	60	0	66	4	32	0
Merioneth	112	4	90	8	69	2	33	6
Cardigan	98	8	80	0	56	0	25	9
Pembroke	94	11	——		58	2	29	3
Carmarthen	110	0	——		58	8	27	4
Glamorgan	115	11	——		70	1	33	2
Glouceſter	140	11	——		79	6	41	5
Somerſet	146	7	——		93	7	41	8
Monmouth	131	5	——		80	7	——	
Devon	110	11	——		52	10	34	1
Cornwall	88	5	——		50	0	29	9
Dorſet	127	0	——		62	1	34	0
Hants	128	11	——		62	1	30	8

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	119	4	77	4	67	8	38	5

Nov. 22—Peck Loaf, 6s. 1d.

PRICES of STOCKS, from OCTOBER 29, to NOVEMBER 26, 1800, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conf.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C. ſhut.	Imperial Ann. ſhut.	Exchequer Bills.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.	Iriſh Lot. Tic.
29	166 ¾	63 ⅛	63¾a64⅛	80 ⅝	99 ½		18 ¼	5 ¼				2s. pre.		
30	166 ½	63 ⅛	64⅛a63⅜	80 ⅝	99 ¼	96 ⅝	18 ¼		206			2		
31	165 ¾	63	63⅝a½	80 ⅞	98 ¾	96 ½						2		
1		63 ⅛	63⅜a64⅛		99	96 ⅝	18 ⅜					3		
3	166 ½	63 ⅛	64⅛a63⅜	80 ⅝	99	96 ½	18 ⅜	5 ¼	205 ½			3		
4	166 ½	63 ⅛	64		98 ¾	96 ⅜						3		
5		63 ⅛	64a⅛			96 ⅛		5 ¼				2		
6	167	63 ⅛	64⅛a⅜	81 ⅜	99 ⅜	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ¼				2	16 14 0	
7	167	63 ⅛	64⅜a⅞	81 ½	99 ½	97 ¼	18 ⅜	5 ¼	206 ¼			2		
8		63 ⅛	64⅛a⅜	81 ½	99 ¼	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ¼				2		
10														
11	166	63 ⅛	64¼a64	81 ⅛	99 ⅛	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ¼	205 ½			1	16 14 0	
12	165 ½	63 ⅛	64a63⅜	81 ⅛	99 ⅛	96 ⅞	18 ⅜	5 ¼	205 ¼			1		
13		63 ⅛	64a63⅜	81 ⅛	99 ⅛	96 ⅞	18 ⅜	5 ¼				1		
14	164 ¾	63 ⅛	63⅝a64⅛	81 ⅛	99 ⅛	96 ¾	18 ⅜	5 ¼				2	16 14 6	
15		63 ⅛	64a⅛	81 ⅛	99 ¼	97	18 ⅜	5 ¼				2		
17		63 ⅛	64⅛a⅛	81 ⅛	100	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ¼				2		
18	165 ¼	63 ⅛	64⅛a¼	81 ⅛	100	97 ⅛	18 ⅜					1	16 14 6	
19	165 ¼	63 ⅛	64⅛a¼	82	100	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ⅛	205 ½				16 15 0	
20	166	63 ⅛	64⅛a½	82	99 ¾	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ⅛	206			par	16 15 0	
21	165 ¾	63 ⅛	64⅛a⅝	82	99 ¾	97 ⅛	18 ⅜	5 ⅛	205 ½			1s. pre.	16 15 0	
22	166 ½	63 ⅛	64⅝a¼	82 ⅛	99 ¾	97 ⅛	19	5 ⅛				1	16 15 0	
24		63 ⅛	64⅛a¼	82 ⅛	99 ⅞	97 ⅛	19	5 ⅛	207			par		
25	166	63 ⅛	64⅛a⅞	82	99 ⅞	97 ⅛	18 ⅞		206 ¼			par		
26		63 ⅛	64⅜a⅛	82	100	98	18 ⅞			62 ⅛	11 ⅝			

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.